THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

DECEMBER 15, 1923

Dr. Frankwood E. Williams on *Mental Attitudes and Social Progress*. Professor Jennings of Johns Hopkins on the evidence as to *Undesirable Aliens*. Cornelia S. Parker on *The First Hundred Years* . . . Dr. Bernard Glueck on current books on psychiatry

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A Glimpse Ahead

In the Field of Mental Hygiene

WHAT are you going to do with *your* extra ten years? Preventive medicine and public health work have added to the average length of life. How can we make those ten years—or any ten years—worth while?

Most of us are puzzled about our own lives, and our future. Many of us have children, clients or patients we must advise. What shall we tell them?

During the year just ahead The Survey will publish a group of articles by men who for years have been advisors of those who have come to them with baffling personal problems concerning themselves, their associates, their children. They have come to these men in their clinics and have told their stories. Out of such vital experience have been wrought things profoundly helpful to us all.

MAN has been searching for the secret of self-understanding and self-mastery since the days of the myth-makers. Latterly psychologists and physicians, psychiatrists and biologists, have joined in the search. Dr. Adolf Meyer, head of the Phipps Psychiatric Clinic of Baltimore, out of his rich and varied experience in the study of life histories of the normal as well as the sick, has minted a phrase which represents the goal for which we are striving. He calls it "Constructive Composure." He will write of the search and the searchers, and of the things sought, in a way which will be of use to every one who would have a better grasp of some of the problems of adjustment faced in his own life and in the lives of the people with whom he deals.

A ROOMFUL of kids, sometimes alone, sometimes with parents attached. A kindly, matter-of-fact person discussing with each in turn the little quirk in behavior which makes trouble in the schoolroom or at home.

That is the Children's Health Class at Mt. Sinai Hospital where Dr. Ira S. Wile is doing individual work in the psychiatric field. He has gathered up the fruits of his study of many children into a series of articles which reveal the deep-lying factors in the delicate relationship between children and this clumsy world.

GUIDING children is nothing new in the world. Fathers and mothers, school teachers, big brothers and sisters and especially aunts have been doing it since before the Ark. But the Bureau of Children's Guidance in New York is giving a new meaning to the term. For the first time an attempt is being made here and at similar clinics to find out all there is to know about the whole child before the guiding begins.

Dr. Bernard Glueck, the director of this bureau, is one of the leaders in the small group of psychiatrists who are making over our attitude toward childhood and may, before they get through with the job, bring about far-reaching revolutions in our homes and schools. Yet their methods seem surprisingly simple. Dr. Glueck will be a frequent contributor to The Survey in the New Year.

Untamed America

PERCY MACKAYE might well be called a "dramatic explorer." He spent a long summer and early autumn sojourning in the remoter parts of the Kentucky Mountains beyond the railroads. There, with his wife and son, he lived in close touch with the people.

One result of his research as a dramatist is a group of plays, the first of which to be performed is a three-act comedy of the mountains entitled This Fine-Pretty World, announced for production in late December by the Neighborhood Playhouse in New York.

Simultaneous with this production, Mr. MacKaye contributes to the January Survey Graphic an article Untamed America, in which for the first time he sets forth some of the underlying ideas and the motives which have prompted his most recent creative work.

Much has been written concerning the contributions which modern civilization can make to better certain sorrowful conditions in the Kentucky Mountains. Mr. MacKaye writes convincingly concerning the valuable contributions which the civilization of the Kentucky Mountains can make to better certain sorrowful conditions in our modern world.

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THE SURVEY

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The Gist of It

NOW that the droning of the roll-calls is heard once more on Capitol Hill, the intermittently political American turns his thoughts once more to the business of government. The social worker's right with bare fists instead of waiting for Congress to hand can't finish up very many jobs unless his left hand dabbles in political action at the same time, and folks who are interested in social progress will have plenty to do this winter in pushing and shoving and hauling at the legislative machinery.

IMMIGRATION will hold the center of the stage at some point in the long session of Congress. A good many people think our laws on that subject are decidedly left-handed. Of the curious cross-currents which create public opinion on this topic, one—the fear of damage to the race through the admittance of inferior stocks—has had increasing attention. Professor H. S. (Herbert Spencer) Jennings, who takes a hand in the discussion on p. 309, is one of the best known experimental biologists in the country. He occupies the Henry Walters chair of zoology at Johns Hopkins.

SOCIAL PROGRESS through international deliberation is a newer and as yet a less concrete process than the familiar operation of legislatures, congresses and parliaments. Mrs. Cornelia S. Parker—author of An American Idyll, and for the last year a resident of Geneva—sets one piece of international deliberation neatly in perspective on p. 313.

PROGRESS along conventional lines runs invariably against the stone wall of mental attitudes, says Dr. Williams (p. 307). How can we pass the barrier? First of all, we must know ourselves, and reckon honestly with our own mental attitudes. Dr. Williams, the medical director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, based this article on a paper which he read at the National Conference of Social Work.

A FAVORITE way of trying to get more service out of our governments is to change the pattern. Cleveland has just changed its municipal pattern. Raymond Moley, who comments on the result (p. 315) came to New York this fall, after four years' work as director of the Cleveland Foundation, to teach government at Barnard College.

DR. BRADLEY (p. 321) is director of the bureau of child hygiene in the Arkansas state department of health. Her article is based on a paper read at the annual meeting of the American Child Health Association. Dr. Dublin, of course, is statistician of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, and secretary of the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice.

CLARKE F. ANSLEY (p. 339) needs no introduction to Survey readers. Rowland Haynes (p. 333) came from the field of recreation to succeed Sherman Kingsley as director of the Welfare Federation of Cleveland Stanley Went (p. 334) is editorial secretary of the Institute whose work he describes.

THE RELATION of R. W. Babcock to this subject (p. 345) is fairly obvious. He teaches English at Iowa. Francis N. Maxfield (p. 347) is director of the bureau of special education in the Pennsylvania state department of public instruction.

MISS SCHLICHTING is a fellow in the research department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. Her investigation of educational subsidies to Boston schoolchildren (p. 331) was carried on in cooperation with the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee. Emma C. Puschner (p. 330) is agent of the St. Louis Board of Children's Guardians.

DR. GLUECK, who reviews current psychiatric books (p. 350) is director of the Bureau of Child Guidance in New York. T. Henry Walnut (p. 351) was formerly an assistant district attorney of the United States, in which capacity he investigated the enforcement of prohibition in Pennsylvania.

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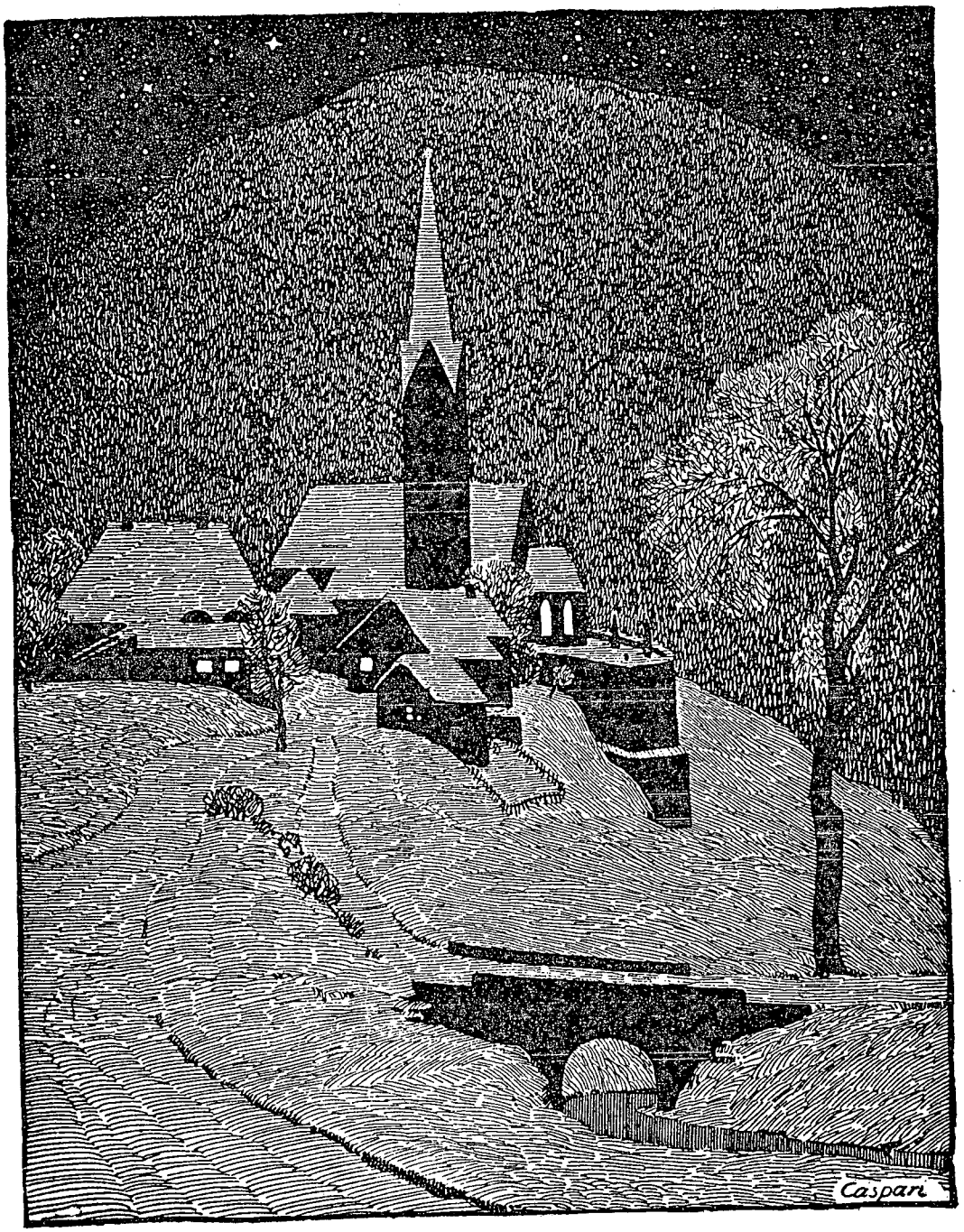

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THE SURVEY

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Mental Attitude and Social Progress

By Frankwood E. Williams, M.D.

SOCIAL work, which has seen its greatest progress in the last fifty years, seems to have reached a point where it is in danger of finding an impasse. It is the factors in this social impasse that I have been trying to outline and to formulate in my own mind.

Apparently life always has been difficult, and yet it seems particularly so just now, with all the problems which have come upon us since the war. Many solutions have been offered at different times—and are offered now—to this problem of living. There have been those who found the solution in deserting this world, leaving it to get on as best it could, and seeking a personal salvation elsewhere. This view has had a great effect on the life of the world—today its adherents are few. There are others—and since the war we are hearing them often—who would bring the life and teachings of Jesus Christ as a guide to us individually and collectively. There are those who feel that the world's problems and our own personal problems are to be solved by greater love—greater love for other individuals and a larger feeling of brotherhood. Others find the answer in economic philosophies; others in forms of government; others through laws and regulations. And then there are still others who feel that the solution is just the opposite of rules and regulations. We are very busy studying and experimenting with these proposed solutions.

A long time ago man assumed that he was made in the image of God, and having assumed that, apparently thought there was no further need to consider himself. We have studied the moon and the stars and everything in the universe except man. Man has harnessed the earth, and yet today, in spite of all the progress he has made along certain particular lines, he is finding himself in a very serious situation. He is learning that his real peril lies not in the tornado, nor in the epidemic. Man's greatest danger is man himself. It is not surprising that this situation has arisen. *Man had to learn to control men long before men knew the simplest thing about man.* Social control was difficult; immediate practical problems had to be met by the wise men of the time as best they could.

Moreover, most of the thinking—the planning, the regulating—has been done for man in the past, and is being done for him today, by more or less emasculated individuals. This is a statement which we are likely to resent, though I believe there are many important reasons for believing it to be true. The important thing is that we should determine whether or not it is true, and meet the situation which that determination produces. Social workers represent all shades of opinion in the different types of solutions I have mentioned. They work with very concrete facts and situations. They have accomplished much, but at times I think we deceive ourselves as to how much. Progress is slow. If we choose to pick out certain things, we can show great accomplishment and have a right to our joy in it. But we deceive ourselves if we let that or several such accomplishments stand for the whole. We have made a very great advance, for example, in public health. We can indeed make that progress seem quite tremendous if we limit our problem of public health sufficiently. Concentrating our attention on the great progress made in a limited sphere—epidemic disease, for example—we can be puffed with pride. But we are humbled at once when we consider that a proper conception of public health must include all illness, not special illnesses, and realize that in this larger sense we are far from satisfactory accomplishment. So in social work we can say we have made great progress; but on the whole it is uncertain, special, and the total result unsatisfactory. Why? Why when confronted with a problem do we reach a point where with all our facts at hand and with our professional knowledge of what should be done, we find our way blocked?

Because we come up against factors in the situation that we have not taken into account before. We come up against walls as solid and as impenetrable by ordinary means as concrete—those walls are the mental attitudes of individuals,

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individuals in authority, individuals of the mass, or the mental attitudes of the group as a whole. By mental attitude I do not mean exactly a prejudice. A prejudice is a crystallized attitude, dealing with a certain situation forming a kind of mental or character excrescence. We can attack prejudices head on and with a show of courage attempt to knock off these excrescences, but it is largely a waste of good courage and energy, for we affect not at all the mental attitude that lies behind them and gives them birth and succor. So I am not speaking of prejudice but of something more fundamental.

These "attitudes" are many. There are attitudes toward authority, for example. We may speak of any given attitude as having a plus and minus quality. This is not exactly accurate as both qualities may exist in the same individual and, in a sense, both qualities are equally positive; still, the conception has the advantage of indicating somewhat the complexity of the real situation yet at the same time giving us a simple formulation for our present purpose. Disregard the complexity, if you will, and regard them all as simply plus or minus. We may speak, then, of a plus and minus attitude toward authority—a resentfulness on the one hand, self-abasement on the other. Another attitude to be considered is selfishness, plus or minus. The desire for the center of the stage, plus and minus. Attitudes toward sex, plus and minus. Sadism and masochism are particularly important here. Attitudes toward religion, plus and minus. And fear, whether personal or of the crowd.

NOW in the decisions and judgments of individuals with these attitudes there is some element of intellect, but for the most part these judgments are emotional. Take, for example, the program for health conservation. We have much information, and many programs which are well thought out and wise, as wise as we can be at this time. There is no question but that a tremendous advance could be made working with the material which we already have. Allowing, of course, for a certain amount of ignorance, what blocks a more rapid progress in health conservation? What prevents the adoption of programs, or disrupts and disorganizes programs adopted? Anti-vaccination movements, anti-vivisection agitation and the like. Here we are dealing specifically with judgments determined by attitudes—not with intelligence, not with a series of facts to be placed and equated against other facts. It is not that this or that individual has facts to prove to the contrary or that he really intelligently believes certain things. Health conservation measures may be brought to him by authority; his attitude toward these measures is a part of his general attitude toward authority. Or, his judgment on these matters—and, let us not forget, the judgment also of his antagonist—may be determined by an attitude for or against the center of the stage, by sadism or masochism, by religious attitudes plus or minus, or by fear in any one of its forms. It is these which hinder us in working for health conservation.

Take the problem of delinquency. What stands in the way? Facts are clear. Procedure in the light of these facts is clear. Here again it is the emotional problem of attitudes—on the one hand hate, authority, sadism; on the other hand, equally harmful, the attitude of sentimentalism, pity, the under dog, masochism. (I am not talking about people who are odd or queer or of any group in particular. I am talking about you and me, people in general, when I speak of these things.) In dealing with problems of illegitimacy we are faced again with certain attitudinal walls through which facts cannot go.

It is all right for us to damn the world in general for interfering with our programs because of these attitudes, but how about some of the attitudes that enter into our own "thinking," our acceptance or refusal of facts? Why are we as individuals so disturbed emotionally by this old world, and why do we have such a feeling of responsibility for saving every one and everything in it? Inquiry here might give us a better orientation on some of the problems of the social worker both personal and professional. At least we can see in the lives of the social workers qualities that suggest an under-dog attitude, feelings of inferiority, and many other attitudinal problems.

It is not a question of whether these things are good or bad; they are both good and bad. It is a question of control of motive, of the impulse back of the action, how much it forces and controls the action beyond the power of the intellect of the individual, how much it clears, how much it distorts specific actions. The importance of the attitude lies not in its goodness or badness, but in the effect which it has upon our recognition of facts and the bearing of the facts.

You may say that this is all commonplace. Of course we have known for years that these are the problems of the world—selfishness, hate, fear and distrust. I am trying very hard to say something more than that. Of course, we have known this, but we have not done much about it. We have said these things were the cause of our troubles, and then we have resigned ourselves to them, as helpless. We have said to those who are selfish, "You must be unselfish." That is about as effective as to say that a man *must* love his wife. Man does not love through law, and if a man or woman does not love his wife or her husband, no law can compel that love. Social workers can make them stay together and keep the family together, but that is different from saying, "You must love each other."

In a recent magazine there was reprinted from a Paris journal a review of a new edition of Emile's Journal, which tells of the life of a man who withdrew from the world for the purpose of contemplation, putting his thoughts into a private journal. The reviewer speaks well and sympathetically of him, and reaches the conclusion that he withdrew from the world because he was timid and afraid of women. It is not unlikely that most people who read the review will think, "Yes, that was the reason," and will decide that that concludes the matter and that everything has been said. But the question begins here. Why was the man timid? Why was he afraid of women? Those questions are absolutely vital in the understanding of the situation. But we are satisfied before they are propounded. We diagnose selfishness, hate, distrust, fear—and then we resign ourselves as though we have said all that can be said—as though we had struck bedrock. Of course, we have done nothing, except to ease ourselves with the thought that nothing more can be expected from us. In so far as you and I are concerned, and in any particular situation, it may be true that nothing more can be done, but in the larger aspect it is not true; merely to name an attitude which blocks progress is the beginning, not the end of the problem.

Our situation in social work today is somewhat comparable to one that existed in (*Continued on page* 361)

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"Undesirable Aliens"

A Biologist's Examination of the Evidence before Congress

By H. S. Jennings

THE Congressional Committee on Immigration has published an extensive investigation* by H. H. Laughlin, of the Carnegie Institution's Eugenics Record Office, on degeneracy and social inadequacy in relation to immigration, a document that is bound to influence greatly discussion and legislation on immigration. The main purpose of the work is "to gauge the relative soundness and stability of the different racial groups in the United States, which gauge, in turn would constitute a measure of their relative long time value to the Nation, especially when viewed in the light of the inborn quality of future generations" (page 731). After presenting the data, Laughlin concludes (page 755) that *"the recent immigrants, as a whole, present a higher percentage of inborn socially inadequate qualities than do the older stocks,"* and proposes measures for preventing the continuance of this introduction of inferior stocks.

On what is this conclusion based and how fully is it established?

Laughlin examined 445 of the existing 667 state and federal custodial institutions, with relation to the nativity and descent of their 210,855 inmates. The relative degeneracy of the different groups of native and foreign-born citizens is expressed by comparing for the chief classes of defects the quotas furnished by each group. A group that furnishes inmates of these institutions in the same proportion as it furnishes inhabitants to the United States is said to fulfil its quota by 100 per cent; if it furnishes inmates in larger proportion its quota fulfilment is above 100 per cent; if in smaller it is below 100 per cent. These percentages of quota fulfilment are the yard sticks for comparing different groups. Thus the Swiss fill but 27 per cent of their quota for criminality while the Italians yield 219 per cent of theirs, so that in the latter the proportion of criminals is eight times as great as in the former. Quota fulfilments by groups are thus worked out for feeblemindedness, insanity, crime, epilepsy, tuberculosis, blindness, deafness, deformity, pauperism or dependence on the community; and for all these types of defect taken as a unit. A number of these categories are subclassified further. In a set of eight striking diagrams the percentages of quota fulfilment are represented by the lengths of heavy black bars, so that he who runs may read. The report deals thus with the relative values of the different groups of the population, but solely from the standpoint of relative defectiveness. It requires to be supplemented, as Laughlin remarks, by a study of the valuable contributions from the same groups. As to the various sorts of defects, conspicuous differences appear in the diverse groups of the population.

What now is here demonstrated as to relative racial values; as to peculiarities native in the different stocks, descending by inheritance into our population? In the groups making up our population do we find strains characterized by the prevalence of particular defects? This is the question that Laughlin's data are designed to answer.

Compare first the immigrants as a whole, and their immediate offspring, with the native population. From Laughlin's summary table (page 753) we may extract the more important facts. The figures are the percentages of the average allowance that are contributed by each group. Lower quota fulfilment of course indicates superiority.

QUOTA FULFILMENT: PERCENTAGES

	Actual numbers included	Native White, both Parents Native	Foreign Born White, Immigrants	Native White, both Parents Foreign	Native White, One Parent Foreign
Insanity	91954	73	226	108	104
Crime	63923	82	86	91	116
Feeblemindedness	15656	108	30	165	190
Dependency ...	14811	104	138	102	102
Tuberculosis ..	10101	89	133	123	123
Epilepsy	6233	93	72	180	200
Deafness	5093	134	15	82	76
Blindness	2388	156	11	57	81
Deformity	676	66	12	364	145
All defects together	210835	84	146	109	117

In five of the nine categories—in feeblemindedness, epilepsy, deafness, blindness and deformity—the foreign-born are superior to the natives born of native parents; in four of these the superiority is very great. This is of course because our immigration laws exclude individuals having those defects. The cases still found have either escaped detection at entrance to the country, or have developed since entrance. In four categories the foreign-born are inferior to the natives born of native parents; in one of these—crime—but slightly inferior; in insanity, tuberculosis and pauperism or dependency, much inferior.

But this superficially favorable showing of the immigrants largely disappears when we examine the numbers of individuals in the different categories. Almost half of all the defectives fall in the single class of the insane, and it is in this class that the immigrants make their worst showing—three times as large a proportion of them falling in this class as of the natives born from native parents. Since case for case insanity is as great a defect as any other, the comparison becomes very unfavorable to the foreign-born. For all defects taken together, the foreign-born show almost double the proportion yielded by the natives born of native parents. Of the 210,835 defectives, the latter supply 95,666, the immigrants 44,587; while in proportion to their numbers in the population we should expect 113,446 from the natives born of native parents, and but 30,592 from the foreign-born. It is mainly in insanity that the inferiority of the immigrants is shown (30,123 foreign-born insane);

* Analysis of America's Modern Melting Pot. Hearings before the Committee on Immigration and Naturalization, House of Representatives, Sixty-Seventh Congress. Third Session. Serial 7-C. Pages 725-831. Washington, 1923.

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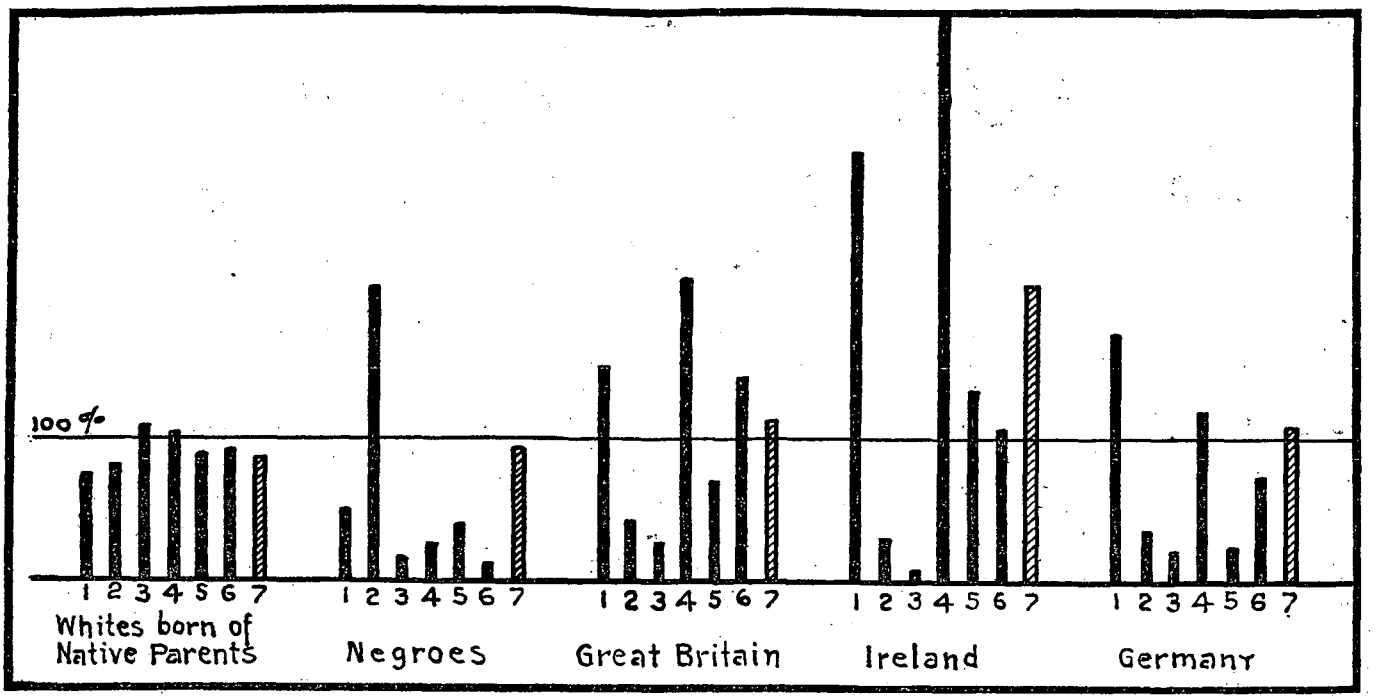

THESE THREE CHARTS taken together indicate the degree of "quota fulfilment" by each of the numerically important groups of immigrants studied by Laughlin, or, roughly speaking, their relative contribution to the population of institutions for the defective and dependent. For figures and a fuller explanation see the table at the foot of page 312. The column for dependency among Irish immigrants is broken by the border of the chart; it should run 1¾ inches higher. The lower chart opposite compares all the groups from northwest Europe with all those from southeast Europe for each of the seven categories of disability. Charts based on Laughlin data.

in respect to dependency (2961 foreign-born cases) and tuberculosis (1954 cases) it is relatively of less consequence.

What is the significance of this on the whole markedly unfavorable balance of the statistics against the foreign-born? Does it show a defective inheritance, an inferior racial constitution, in the immigrants?

As to this, two main questions arise: one relates to the possible role of diverse environments in the two cases; the other to possible differential representation of native and foreign-born in the custodial institutions.

As to the first point, the four categories in which the comparison is unfavorable to the immigrants—insanity, crime, pauperism and tuberculosis—may all be characterized as mental, moral or physical breakdowns. In determining whether these shall occur, either diverse inheritance or diverse environments may play the deciding role. The two sets of individuals compared have had extremely different effective environments. The foreign-born have come through the soul-searching ordeal of immigration; the natives have not. The immigrants have come from countries where their opportunities were less than those enjoyed by the natives of America; under the heavy handicap of ignorance of the language, customs and laws of the country in which they arrive, often also under the handicaps of poverty and lack of education, they have tried to make their way in our fierce competitive life. Will not mental, moral and physical breakdown occur more frequently in that class than in the other—even if the inheritance in the two cases be equal? Beyond question; the immigrant class are bound to show a greater proportion of defects due to environmental pressure than the native class. But how much greater? Is the total observed diversity to be so accounted for, without relation to diverse inheritances? Would an equal number of average Americans put through the process of immigration under the same conditions, show an equal number of breakdowns? No one knows. But an affirmative answer to these questions is not excluded by the data.

But, coming to the second point, do the statistics give a correct picture of the relative frequency of occurrence of the defects? Do native and foreign-born defectives find their way in the same relative proportions into the state and federal custodial institutions? Or is there possibly a differential representation of the two groups? The defectives in these institutions are but a small proportion of those that exist, even of the same types. Laughlin estimates (page 736) that only about 5 per cent of the feebleminded needing custodial care are actually receiving it in institutions. Somewhat less than 5 per cent would then be represented in his statistics. For the other classes of defectives, detailed estimates are not given. Laughlin, however, does estimate (page 749) that about one million defectives are cared for in institutions of some sort. His survey would include about 20 per cent of these. The other 80 per cent would be mainly in private or possibly in municipal institutions.

Now, it is clear from the statistics given that certain classes of the population are less fully represented than others in the state and federal institutions which Laughlin studied. The Negro is far below his quota in most of the classes of defects: in feeblemindedness he furnishes but 16 per cent of his allowance; in insanity but 53 per cent, in tuberculosis but 40 per cent (in spite of his known susceptibility to tuberculosis); in epilepsy but 12 per cent, and so on. This cannot represent the actual incidence of these defects in the Negro. Obviously the Negro does not readily find his way into public institutions (except prisons). Again, in pauperism or dependency on the community, the immigrants from

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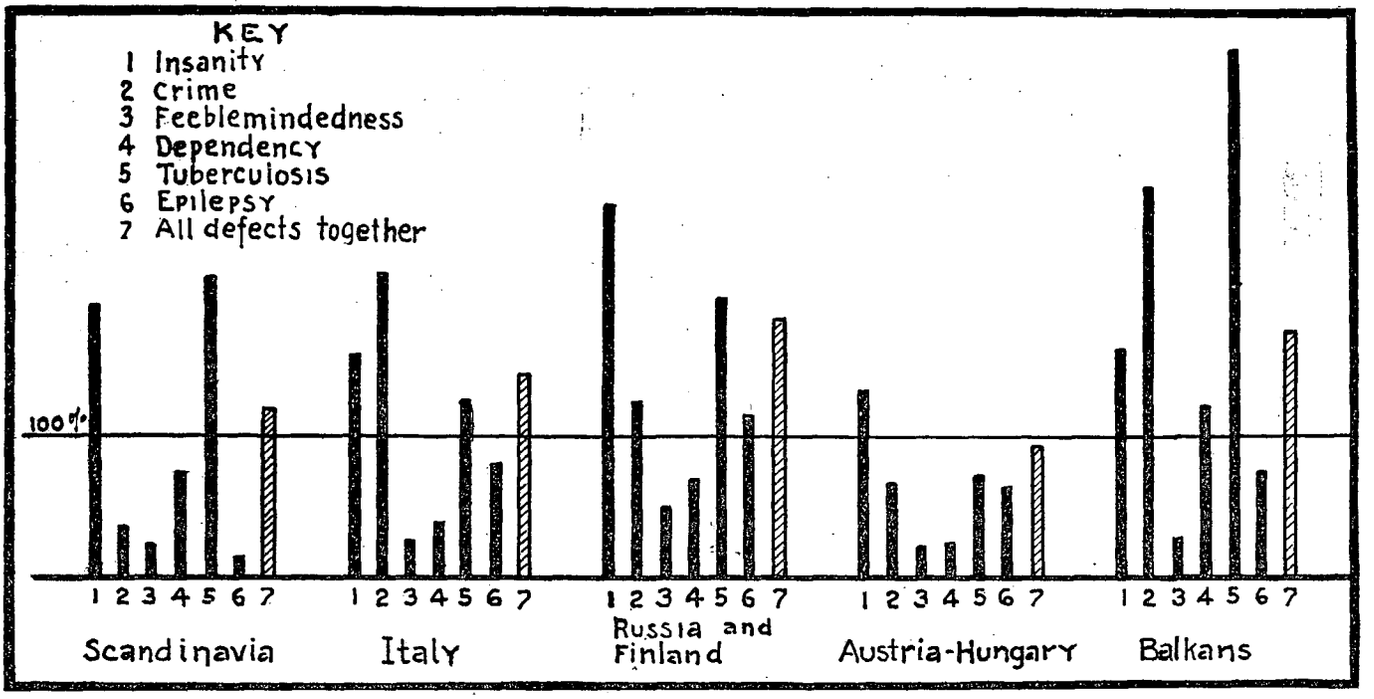
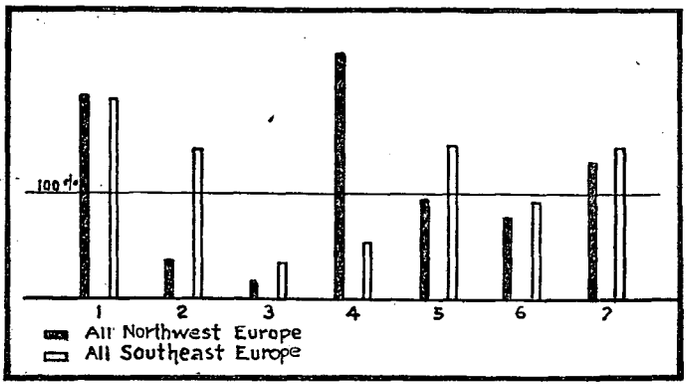


the north and west of Europe give a quota fulfilment of 234 per cent, those from the south and east of Europe of but 50 per cent; in senile insanity the former section yields 311 per cent, the latter but 82 per cent. These differences seem obviously due to some diversity in customs in the two sections as to family care of dependent members.

As between the immigrants and the long-established native families, is it not probable that the former, through poverty and the absence of ties uniting them to the social fabric, must have recourse more frequently, in case of breakdown, to the governmental institutions? Would not statistics from expensive private institutions in all probability show a reversal in the proportions of native-born and foreign-born, as compared with the governmental institutions? It should be possible to collect statistics from such private institutions; until this is done, it cannot be held established that the occurrence of the defects is actually so much greater in the foreign-born as the face of the present statistics seems to show.

So far, therefore, as the direct comparison of immigrants with the natives born of native parents is concerned, it does not appear to be established that the recent immigrants are inferior in their inherited qualities. But further evidence on the matter is yielded by Laughlin's statistics summarized in the last two columns of the table given above. Here we have the proportions of defectives yielded by the first generation descendants of immigrants; natives with one or both parents foreign-born. A number of notable facts appear here. The proportion of insane (108 per cent) has fallen to less than one half what it was in the immigrants themselves (226 per cent)—in harmony with the presumption that in them it was due largely to the conditions involved in immigration; but it is still much above the proportion found in natives born of native parents (73 per cent). As to dependency on the community, deafness, and blindness, this second generation is superior to the natives of older stock.

But feeblemindedness, epilepsy and deformity rise far above the proportions shown in the immigrants themselves; in these defects, as in insanity, the children of immigrants



present a much worse record than do those born of native parents. To what can this be attributed?

With respect to the extraordinary increase in "deformity" (from 12 per cent to 364 per cent) Laughlin (page 746) states that this class includes those crippled as a result of accident and that "doubtless much of the high incidence of quota fulfilment by the children of immigrants is caused by their hazardous occupation and other dangerous features of their environment." Thus the inferiority of environment persists into the second generation; this fact may well account also for the higher percentage of crime, insanity and tuberculosis among the children of the immigrants.

But feeblemindedness and epilepsy are less dependent on environmental conditions than are the other defects: their high incidence among the second generation immigrants cannot plausibly be accounted for by difference in environment. This yields therefore a positive indication of greater defectiveness in the immigrant stock as compared with the native stock. There does however remain the possibility, or probability, discussed above, that the members of immigrant families have recourse more frequently to public institutions than do older native families; this, along with their inferior environment, may account for a part or all of the inferiority in their record. This is in urgent need of investigation: until this is carried out, it stands in the way of Laughlin's conclusion that "the recent immigrants as a whole present

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The Disability Sweepstakes

Groups of the foreign-born who, in proportion to their share in the total population of the United States, contribute the largest numbers of inmates to custodial institutions, as indicated by the Laughlin survey. Classified by types of disability.

Insanity
1. Ireland
2. Russia-Finland
3. Scandinavia

Crime
1. Balkans
2. Italy
3. Russia-Finland

Feeblemindedness
1. Russia-Finland
2. Great Britain
3. Tie between Italy and Balkans

Dependency
1. Ireland
2. Great Britain
3. Balkans

Tuberculosis
1. Balkans
2. Scandinavia
3. Russia-Finland

Epilepsy
1. Great Britain
2. Russia-Finland
3. Ireland

All defects together

1. Ireland 2. Russia-Finland 3. Balkans

Northern-western Europe takes four firsts, three seconds and two thirds. Southern-eastern Europe takes three firsts, three seconds and five thirds.

a higher percentage of inborn socially inadequate qualities than do the older stocks."

But whether this conclusion be admitted or not, some defective stocks, whether in greater or less proportion than among the natives, undoubtedly do come in with the immigrant stream. Can we discover what group or groups are chiefly responsible for this introduction of defective inheritance into our population? There are difficulties. Laughlin gives the percentage of quota fulfilment in each class of defectives for the foreign-born from the nations and geographical regions from which our immigrants come. But the real evidence of defective inheritance comes in the first native-born generation, and he does not give us data as to the specific parentage (by nationality) of the defectives in these. We know only that they came on one or both sides from immigrant parents. Further, these are children of immigrants who arrived, not recently, but according to Laughlin's calculations, in the period from 1880 to 1900, or earlier. Since that time the composition of the immigrant stream has changed. We can, therefore, get only indirect evidence, by examining the relative frequency of the various defects in the different groups of the recent immigrants, and by considering which of these groups prevailed in the immigrant stream that produced the defective offspring now in our institutions.

For this purpose Laughlin's data for the more important groups of the foreign-born may be summarized in a table. This will be confined to the European immigrants, and, in order to emphasize salient features, to the main large regions from which our immigrants come. Each of the regions or nations included is represented by at least a million foreign-born Americans, save the Balkans, with 220,000: this region is included on account of its recent importance as a source of immigrants. The classes of defectives are given in order of size, the small and unimportant classes of the deaf, blind and deformed being omitted. For comparison, the figures are given also for the native whites born of native parents, and for the Negroes. See the table below.

This table will repay study. It shows that, among the European regions forming the chief sources of our immigrants, the highest proportion of defectives comes from Ireland, with a quota fulfilment of 209 per cent. Russia is second with 184 per cent, and the Balkans third with 175 per cent. In the single categories (in order of the numbers contained), for insanity Ireland is again the leader, yielding over three times its allowance (305 per cent), followed by Russia (266 per cent), with Scandinavia third (193 per cent). In crime the Balkans comes first (278 per cent), Italy next (218 per cent), Russia third (126 per cent). Owing to the very effective exclusion of the feebleminded, the quotas from all countries are small and the order of precedence perhaps without significance: as we find it, the order is, Russia first, Great Britain second, Italy and the Balkans tied for third place. In dependency, Ireland is overwhelmingly preeminent, with a quota of fulfilment (634 per cent) more than six times her allowance; followed afar off by Great Britain (218 per cent), with the Balkans a distant third (121 per cent). For tuberculosis the Balkans are first (379 per cent), Scandinavia second (214 per cent), Russia third (200 per cent). Finally, in epilepsy Great Britain is first (146 per cent), Russia second (117 per cent), Ireland third (108 per cent).

Summarizing in sporting parlance the nations that are "placed" first, second or third in this competition, Ireland has three "firsts," including that for total defectives, and one "third." The Balkans have two "firsts and two "thirds" (including that for total defectives); Russia has one "first," three "seconds" (*Continued on page* 364)

Comparative Quota Fulfilments of the Major Racial Groups in American Custodial Institutions (Percentages)

If the ratio of German-born epileptics to the total number of epileptics in the custodial institutions studied was the same as the ratio of German-born residents in the United States to the total population, the German quota fulfilment in epilepsy would be 100 *per cent. Lower quota fulfilment of course indicates superiority.*

	Insanity	Crime	Feeble-mindedness	Dependency	Tuberculosis	Epilepsy	All defects together
Native whites born of native parents	73	82	108	104	89	93	84
Negroes	52	208	16	25	40	12	93
Great Britain	157	44	27	218	72	146	113
Ireland	305	31	8	634	136	108	209
Germany	175	35	20	120	25	76	107
Scandinavia	193	35	20	76	214	14	119
Italy	158	218	25	40	124	82	145
Russia and Finland	266	126	51	72	200	117	184
Austria-Hungary	134	68	21	25	71	65	92
Balkans	163	278	25	121	379	75	175
All North and West Europe	198	38	19	234	94	80	130
All South and East Europe	189	141	33	50	148	89	143

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The First Hundred Years . . .

An Impression of the International Labor Conference at Geneva

By Cornelia S. Parker

A RANK optimist measures in terms of ice ages, and the speed of world improvement takes his breath away. A meliorist times by centuries, and concludes that we do indeed move, and often forward. A pessimist holds his watch in his hand and groans, "We're just where we were an hour ago. There's no such thing as progress."

It is a long step from the conditions of the Hammonds' Town Laborer to an international labor conference composed of delegates from forty-two countries for the sole purpose of discussing factory inspection. Not so long a step but that it has been made. Which only goes to show that all any one needs to steer clear of pessimism is the requisite degree of patience. A hundred years or so, and things are better! Indeed, in the case of general factory conditions, one can safely say much better. The trouble seems to be, as far as a mere observer at these international gatherings can gather, that some of their delegates, even more so the world at large, feel justified in demanding that in one to three years conditions should be much much better.

One hundred and twenty-two delegates from forty-two of the possible fifty-seven countries. Had each member state present been represented by its full quota of two government delegates, one employer and one workers' delegate, the Kursaal at Geneva would have held 168 official delegates. Counting technical experts and advisers sent by the various countries, there were around 220 men and women (ten women) on the floor.

Perhaps another hundred years from now—who knows?—a visitor at the League of Nations Assembly and the International Labor Conference may be unable to note any difference in the type of delegates to the two gatherings. Already, in 1923, after the name of Theadore Leipart, for instance, workers' delegate for Germany, are the words "former Minister." Or should pure syndicalism take hold of the world's imagination in the decades or centuries to come, would not one international organization do for the world's international affairs? What a boon to the economy criers! What a stroke of hard luck for Geneva.

As it is, the League delegates are a polished shiny lot on the whole—many the spats, the faultless ties, the well creased trousers. The government delegates to the Labor Conference and the employers' delegates might be—some are—holdovers from the League. The workers' delegates, by and large, look the part. Mr. Poulton of Great Britain could be envisaged as a middle-aged and successful American factory owner. M. Martna, workers' delegate from Esthonia, among grey-haired diplomats with pointed beards, would look a diplomat himself. Yet there is a work-a-day air to the International Labor Conference, which it ought to possess, and does.

To be noted, in these trial days of international cooperation, there sits a full delegation from Germany in the front row.

Monday morning, pouring rain, dingy Kursaal. M. Adatchi of Japan, distinguished Minister to Belgium, is unanimously elected President of the Conference. Applause. Everybody on the platform shakes hands. The little, highly esteemed Japanese fairly sinks out of sight in his tapestried presidential chair. Sir Malcolm Delevigne, government delegate of England, whose voice comes down from his hair, steps forward to the speakers' platform and explains the object of the conference:

> I conceive that our first object is to study and discuss for our mutual advantage and instruction the principles, the methods and the aims which should belong to an efficient system of factory inspection: to see how our methods strike the representatives of other countries, and what useful suggestions we can gather from the methods of other countries. . . . Factory Inspection is a living and a growing thing. . . . The part which the inspectorate has to play in accident prevention is one of the most important aspects of the question which we shall have to consider. . . . The conference is fortunate in that the Labour Office has been able to secure the presence at our conference of the head of that remarkable movement in the United States of America which is known as the American Safety-First Movement. . . .

Tuesday. One week only to the entire discussions on factory inspection and one good morning goes to a wrangle as to how many members from the government, employers' and workers' groups shall sit on each of the five committees designated to report in detail on the text of the draft recommendation on factory inspection.

Wednesday the sittings of the five committees begin in earnest. For months the International Labor Bureau has been preparing the draft report on the basis of replies from the various member states to the questionnaire sent out from Geneva headquarters. With this Report on the General Principles for the Organization of Factory Inspection as a basis of discussion, each committee is to prepare its report to present before the conference. To the first committee was allotted the subject Sphere of Inspection. Their final text recommended that it should be the principal duty of the system of inspection instituted in accordance with Article 427 of the Treaty of Versailles to secure the enforcement of the laws and regulations dealing with the regulation of conditions of work and the protection of the workers while engaged in their work. There is much discussion around the question of additional duties. Should inspectors, for instance, intervene in labor disputes? It is finally decided to omit all enumeration of additional duties, and recommend rather that accessory work be closely related to the primary object of ensuring the protection, health and safety of the workers, and that they shall in no way prejudice the authority and impartiality necessary to inspectors in their relations with employers and workers.

The second committee for three meetings discusses the nature of the Functions and Powers of Inspectors. Under the first paragraph of the draft report, recommending that

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inspectors should be empowered by law to enter establishments at any hour of the day or night and have the right to question the staff or other persons, and to require to be shown any registers and documents necessary, there is animated discussion. Did sleeping quarters of workers come under places to be inspected? Finally decided they did not in most countries. M. Lambert-Ribot, French employers' adviser, desired to insert the addition that before an inspector could enter an establishment he must give proof of his identity to the employer or his representative. What then would become of surprise-visits? Could they not present their credentials *after* the visit? Need they present credentials at all, unless demanded? Did employers want people wandering about their plants unannounced? Shouldn't the inspector justify his presence to the workers as well as to the employer? Such a compromise brings satisfaction to all but one member.

In regard to necessary information, shall the inspector be empowered to question persons off the plant? The draft report has made no such allowance. The women committee members present emphasise the need of a free hand in questioning, in cases of morality affecting children, accidents, etc.

But then would the inspector not take on what amounted to police powers? But there could be a distinction made between interrogation carried on by an inspector and by a magistrate. The wording "to question without witness the staff belonging to the establishment and for purposes of information any other persons whose evidence they may consider necessary" is adopted.

Could inspectors themselves bring proceedings before courts of law in cases of contraventions? This right has often been contested. Could it not be definitely recognized? The committee alters the draft report to read:

> That, regard being had to the administration and judicial systems of each country, and subject to such reference to superior authority as may be considered necessary, inspectors should be empowered to bring breaches of the laws which they ascertain directly before the competent authority;

and adds what later proves the cause of one of the most heated discussions before the conference: "that the reports drawn up by the inspectors shall be considered to establish the facts stated therein in default of proof to the contrary."

Oh my, when English law is tampered with! When that paragraph was submitted to the conference for approval, the Anglo-Saxon from the four corners of the earth mounted the rostrum, now with traditional British calm, now with untraditional British roaring, defied the world to lay one finger on the fundamental principle of British jurisprudence —that every man was innocent until he was proved guilty. M. Jouhaux of France was not moved by the translated oratory. It looked as if we might be there till midnight, roaring on. Until an inspired Spanish delegate let in the dove of peace with the simple addition ". . . . that in countries where it is not incompatible with the judicial system at present in force reports drawn up by inspectors . . . ." So we were able to adjourn after all at 8 p. m.

But we are still in the third committee meeting and little suspect what lies two days ahead. Yet English versus European law comes into the discussion here. Can inspectors order necessary alterations in the plant? In England they can only advise. Workers generally fear that inspectors may have insufficient powers. Inspectors, M. Buisson, advisor to the French workers' delegates, declares, should have the right of issuing orders where safety is concerned. The English amendment is lost, 10 votes to 9. Inspectors, according to the committee, should in certain cases be empowered to *order*.

And all this while the third committee is discussing Safety and Hygiene, and in due time submits to the conference its recommendations that the International Labor Office proceed to a survey of safety-first measures of all sorts, whether to do with machinery, insurance, health conditions.

The fourth committee brings in the recommendations as to Organization of the Staff, which are summarized in the accompanying box; after lengthy discussion enlivened by tilts over civil service tenure and women inspectors. Mr. Stork, the Dutch employer, is not so sure that women have the necessary "mentality" for certain forms of inspection. Margaret Bondfield of England is sure they have. Mrs. Kjelsberg of Norway is sure women have the necessary mentality. Mrs. Carmichael of Canada has the Faith. Mrs. Ishihara of Japan says that Japanese women have no objections to the employment of women inspectors on the same

Factory Inspectors

Some Recommendations of the International Labor Conference

Organization of the staff. (1) the inspectors should be localized as far as possible in the industrial districts; (2) general supervision under inspector of high qualifications; (3) direct and exclusive control of inspectorate by central state authority, with entire elimination of control by local authorities; (4) handling of technical details of inspection by experts; (5) employment of both women and men inspectors, with equal opportunities of promotion to the higher ranks.

Qualifications and training of inspectors. (1) emphasis of high standards of inspectorate necessary. (It was when this point was brought up before the plenary conference that the Austrian workers' delegate pleaded for an international school of factory inspection to be instituted in Geneva.); (2) independence and permanence of inspectors in relation to changes of government, and proper remuneration; (3) period of probation and training; (4) transference of inspectors from district to district for wider experience.

Standard and methods of inspection: (1) necessity of the principal of the responsibility of management for the observance of the law; (2) "as a general rule, the visits of the inspectors should be made without any previous notice to the employer;" (3) need of visiting every establishment under inspection at least once a year.

Cooperation of employers and workers: (1) "That it is essential that the workers and their representatives should be afforded every facility for communicating freely with the inspectors as to any defect or breach of the law . . . that every such complaint should, as far as possible, be investigated promptly by the inspector; that the complaint should be treated as absolutely confidential by the inspector and that no intimation even should be given to the employer or his officials that the visit made for the purpose of investigation is being made in consequence of the receipt of a complaint"; (2) desirability of inspectorate conferring from time to time with representatives of employers' and workers' organizations as to best measures for insuring health and safety of workers.

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conditions as men. Mr. Stork regrets his use of the word "mentality." He means . . . .

The fifth committee dealt with the subject of inspectors' reports.

On the last day the final draft recommendation on the general principles for the organization of factory inspection is accepted unanimously by the conference. And when all is said and done and the delegates shake the last dust of Geneva from their feet—what comes of it all?

How easy, how easy, are words. The real work comes after the recommendation has been forwarded to the various governments. Will countries of inadequate factory inspection pass the necessary legislation to put some or all of the recommendations into effect? Will those new laws be enforced? The answer rests of course with public opinion. Social legislation in a world torn by political and economic dissensions has hard pickings. Yet the social life of each nation would perhaps fare still worse were there no international agency in existence to exert such pressure toward industrial welfare as its youth and the shaky times allow.

During the discussion of the directors' annual report, there were many criticisms heard on the floor of the conference that progress was slow, "painfully slow." Those delegates were the watch holders. Four years ago, they roared (watch holders roar more than other kinds), there was want, suppression, unemployment, misery, destitution, on earth. The International Labor Office was founded to do away with all of that. The office had been given four years now and misery still stalked about the earth. They tremblingly roared about the women and the little children. Some of the workers felt they should all withdraw from the conference. What was the use?

M. Albert Thomas, director of the Labor Office, measures by longer time periods. If progress has been painfully slow, it is because there is nothing sovereign about the International Labor Office. It can move no faster than the member states which compose it. It is the limitations of men which must be overcome. Men's minds must be trained in internationalism. And at best internationalism can only keep pace with nationalism—it can go no faster. And what is the condition of the world at large? Each state is becoming more and more concerned with its own rights. The political situation must first be cleared up. But M. Thomas is not pessimistic. The International Labor Office is a power for improvement in the world. He feels confident it is making itself felt in forward looking industrial policies even where actual social legislation does not result. The intangibles . . . .

There is no great popular thrill to the subject of factory inspection. There is more of a "story" to the rows over credentials of M. Uno, the Japanese workers' delegate. The workers' delegates have protested. The Japanese government was not fair to organized labor. M. Uno himself, with a thin fringe of greyish beard tied under his chin and up to his ears with a string, you'd say, protests (in choppy Japanese) against his own appointment and hopes it will not be accepted. But it is accepted just the same, the government and employers' delegates practically unanimous for him, the workers' against. For four conferences now these protests against the Japanese workers' delegate have been disputed and debated and orated over. A tactful suggestion is made to the Japanese government that perhaps by the next conference some more satisfactory method of selection can be found.

The Italian workers' delegate, M. Rossoni, is protested against by the Italian socialists. It takes the whole session before the complications arising from his case can be settled. And on the last morning we have the most excited hours of all when M. Jouhaux, ever on the watch lest the workers of the world fail to receive their just dues, ever oratorical, ever bellowing at the top of his lungs, protests for an hour that M. Rossoni was not appointed by the boni fide (incidentally Socialist) organized workers of Italy, 60,000 in number, but by the Confederation of National Trade Union Corporations, the C. C. S., a mixed organization of workers and employers (incidentally two million in number). M. Rossoni replies. M. Jouhaux bellows. M. Rossoni smiles. Persons who like a smile better than a bellow fight against being prejudiced unduly in favor of M. Rossoni. And M. Rossoni orates on. If M. Jouhaux took an hour—M. Rossoni smiles—he may take an hour himself. The last fourth of M. Jouhaux's hour you had your fingers in your ears to keep the top of your head from being lifted off by the unending avalanche of voluminous sound. M. Rossoni warms to his task. And you understand as never before Italy's going Fascist. You understand how M. Rossoni's organization, instead of being the minority organization of 150,000 as it was three years ago, now numbers its two million. M. Rossoni claims that technically speaking there are no employers in the organization, unless M. Jouhaux objects to a few cabbage growers. The conference votes to seat M. Rossoni.

A week of factory investigation mixed with Japanese, topped off with Fascist, oratory. One's impression, looking back on the conference, is that it was a very active and a more varied week than the official program would have led one to expect.

Cleveland's "New" Council

CLEVELAND has a well-earned reputation for its hospitality to new ideas. In many fields of social and political activity it has experimented with innovations which have become, in most cases, sound and practical institutions widely adopted by other cities. On November 6 it held its first election under a new city charter embodying the city manager form of government—thus becoming much the largest city in the United States with that form—and providing for the election of a council under the Hare system of proportional representation, familiarly called P. R. Cleveland is one of the largest voting units in the world using proportional representation for the election of a legislative body; in this country only the small cities of Boulder, Colorado, and Ashtabula, Ohio, have preceded it in adopting this system.

The new charter was adopted at the municipal election of 1921. No experienced political observer then took seriously the effort to secure the adoption of such a radically new kind of government. But much to the surprise of every one, the measure was carried by a substantial majority. This extraordinary action of the voters was probably due more to a definite desire to rebuke the party in power than to experiment with a governmental innovation, because at the same election there was elected as mayor a curious independent candidate—a man who seven years before had been dismissed from the office of police chief in deep disgrace, who had no platform, no organization, no newspaper support and who

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did not make a single speech throughout the campaign. The new charter, then, was born in a wierd sort of municipal revolution.

It provides that the chief executive of the city shall be a city manager appointed by and responsible to the city council. He may be removed at any time by the council. The old system provided for the election of a single councilman in each of the thirty-three wards. The new one divides the city into four districts in each of which a group of councilmen is elected by proportional representation. The population of these districts, the number of councilmen elected in each and the population per councilman are as follows:

District	Population	Council members	Population per councilman
1	228,617	7	32,659
2	175,113	5	35,022
3	196,732	6	32,788
4	204,375	7	29,196
	804,837	25	

The task of the voter under the Hare or single transferable system of proportional representation is very simple. He receives a ballot on which is printed a list of the candidates in his district. He is directed to express a series of choices indicating his first preference with the figure 1, his second 2, and in this manner all for whom he chooses to vote. He may vote for every candidate in the entire list.

The counting process is not so easy to understand. Perhaps it will be more simple if we describe what actually happened in District 3 in the election just held. On the evening of election day the ballots in each precinct were sorted so that those expressing a first choice for each candidate were together. Then these "first choices" were counted and the ballots of each candidate were enclosed in a separate envelope and sent to the Public Auditorium where the Board of Elections had made preparations to carry on the process of transfering the ballots. The "quota" (number of votes necessary to elect) was first determined by dividing the number of valid ballots by one more than the number of seats to be filled and adding to the quotient that fraction necessary to bring the number to the next whole number. The total of valid ballots was 20,740, the seats to be filled 6; the quota thus determined was 2,963. The quota is the number which six (but not seven) candidates could possibly receive, on first choices.

When all first choices were counted it was found that one candidate, Mr. Finkle, had received more than the quota. Therefore he was declared elected and a number of ballots equal to the difference between the number he received and the quota he needed for election were taken by lot from his ballots. This "surplus" was then distributed among the remaining candidates according to the choices indicated by the voters upon the ballots. For example, if one of the ballots in the "surplus" was marked with (2) opposite Mr. Fleming (another candidate) it was placed to Mr. Fleming's credit. After Mr. Finkle's surplus had been distributed the candidate with the smallest number of votes was declared defeated and his ballots were distributed in a similar way. This process was continued until six were elected. In the course of the count whenever a candidate received a quota he was declared elected. Ballots which had no further choices indicated were "exhausted" and dropped out of the running.

Advocates of the Hare system say that the existing system of selecting representatives by geographical areas fails to bring into legislative bodies a fair representation of the electorate. Parties with a bare majority of the votes acquire a large majority of seats, important minority groups fail to secure any representation, and independents have little chance of election. Proportional representation, they say, will change all this. Voters who "think alike but live apart" may unite upon candidates who represent their point of view. Groups representing more vital interests than empty party slogans will, if they are large enough, elect members. Parties will be represented in proportion to their actual numerical strength. The Cleveland experiment offers a very good opportunity to test some of these attractive claims.

THE council just elected differs from the old one and from others which preceded it chiefly in the fact that it includes a larger number of members independent of the two political parties. The old council had two independents; the new four, perhaps five. Three of these are of a distinctly better type than the average councilman, while the average of the entire council is slightly better than usual. Of the independents the best known is Peter Witt, one of the strongest and most loyal of the old Tom L. Johnson group and, to a degree, the heir of the liberal Johnson tradition. He is a fierce enemy of all "special privilege," a very courageous and effective campaigner and, withal, widely experienced in municipal affairs. A. R. Hatton, professor of political science in Western Reserve University, long a champion of reform in government organization and methods, and a leader in educating the public on P. R., is another of the independents elected.

Social workers everywhere will be interested in the success of the third, Marie Wing, now secretary of the Cleveland branch of the Consumers League. Miss Wing was for several years general secretary of the Cleveland Y. W. C. A. where her interest in the development of the association's service to girls working for wages rather than salaries was marked. She has always been definite and courageous in her attitude toward fundamental economic questions and during the last session of the Ohio legislature was the leader in the efforts to have a minimum wage law enacted. In addition to her experience and training in social work she is equipped with training in the law, and has recently been admitted to the Ohio bar. There is little doubt of her value as a member of the council, where there has always been too little appreciation of the importance of conducting properly the very large welfare interests of the city. Her election is particularly fortunate at this time when one of the problems of the new government is the demand of the private welfare interests that the city restore the outdoor relief department, discontinued two years ago.

The new council will be controlled by a well organized, rather able group of Republicans, fourteen in number, who will probably select a Cleveland Republican as city manager. This manager will probably be guided by political considerations in making appointments and directing the administration. The independents will be useful in furnishing opposition to this majority but their power will largely be limited to discussion and criticism.

To liberals a very disappointing feature of the election was the utter failure of labor to avail itself of the opportunity presented to secure direct representation in the council. A well known labor leader, president in 1922 of the Cleveland Federation of Labor, was a candidate and received

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in his district only 284 of a total of 32,000 first choice votes. A leading socialist, once elected to the council from a ward, ran very poorly.

The election reveals interesting possibilities of what may happen under proportional representation, but in net results it was far from startling. Fewer electors registered and fewer cast valid votes than in any election in Cleveland for a long time. The old party returns to power after two years of inactivity. The expected formation of new groups did not eventuate and labor did not show even a slight desire to become political. RAYMOND MOLEY

Doctors by Devious Ways

ONE day last August Harry Thompson Brundige left the office of the St. Louis Star a reporter. Two months later, by spending many hours in correspondence and talk, two hours and twenty-two minutes in actual instruction, and about $3,000 of the Star's money, he had obtained a certificate stating that he had completed the high school course of the state of Missouri, a diploma declaring that he was lawfully entitled to the degree of M.D. conferred in May 1916, by the National University of Arts and Sciences, St. Louis (it went out of existence in 1918), a diploma attesting the degree of Doctor of Chiropractic, purporting to have been issued in March 1923, by the Progressive College of Chiropractic, Chicago, and a license to practice medicine in Tennessee.

The Star had a tip that Dr. Robert Adcox of St. Louis knew something of a "diploma mill." Brundige got a job as a coal salesman, using the name Harry Thompson, and took a room a couple of doors from Dr. Adcox's house. The postman introduced them; Brundige asked the physician's advice about a sore throat, and opined that being a doctor must be a pretty easy way of earning one's living. At a third visit, after a little desultory conversation, Adcox inquired the amount of the supposed Thompson's savings, and suggested that for about $1,000 one could easily become a full-fledged M.D. "Thompson" demurred that he was almost thirty and had not even finished high school, but the doctor assured him that that was no obstacle. The first step toward his medical career, accordingly, was a certificate, with the seal of the Department of Public Schools of Missouri, declaring that he had passed an examination before Prof. W. P. Sachs on April 13, 14, and 15, 1914, and was entitled to an official certificate from the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Then gradually he found his way into a system which sounds like a movie scenario. Dr. Adcox, the "clearing house," introduced him to Dr. Ralph Voigt of Kansas City, the "master mind," who in two months turned him out as Dr. Harry Thompson with a faked diploma obtained from Dr. Date R. Alexander, secretary of the Kansas City College of Medicine and Surgery.

While "Thompson" was waiting for the mills to grind out his medical diploma Voigt suggested that he become a chiropractor so that he "could hang out a shingle and catch a lot of suckers." The only actual instruction "Thompson" received during his medical career was two hours and twenty-two minutes demonstration of the philosophy, art and science of chiropractic, which, in the elegant language of his medical guide, was sufficient to teach him "to know how to give the patients their thumps and get the money." The diploma he received has been repudiated by Dr. Henry Lindlahr, president of the Progressive College of Chiropractic, at Chicago, who declares the signatures, with one exception, forged.

NO recent job of social scavanging has disclosed more shocking results than this. According to Sachs, formerly examinor for the Missouri Department of Public Schools, Brundige's bogus high school certificate was only one of about a thousand which he sold through the diploma ring. Sachs declares that there are between 15,000 and 25,000 fake doctors throughout the country, and that he personally knows 200 of them. Preliminary certificates, he testified, could be bought for $10 in Indiana, Illinois, or Wisconsin.

Buying the high school certificate was only the first step. After that came a diploma from one of the "sundown" medical schools, from a school which conveniently had ceased to exist, or which never existed at all except in the shop of the lithographer who supplied its diplomas. Then came the state license. If the college named on the diploma was recognized in the state in which the applicant wished to practice, there were two possibilities: a substitute could be bought to take the examinations in his name and turn over the licensing papers, or some member of the examining board might be induced to hand out the examination questions in advance, so that the candidate, well primed, could present himself personally. Otherwise he was obliged to get his license in one of the "easy" states, either by proxy or in person, and then try for reciprocity, or buy a second-hand state license in which his name had been inserted in place of that of the original holder.

Apparently Arkansas and Connecticut have been the Meccas of the diploma manufacturers. According to the stories told before the special Grand Jury which is sitting in Connecticut, Dr. Adcox would come to New Haven with whole flocks of the "graduates" of his favorite institutions. Connecticut has two licensing boards, one for the graduates of "regular" schools and one for the "eclectics." The Kansas City College of Medicine and Surgery, though repudiated by the national organization, has been nominally eclectic, so its alumni naturally passed before the Eclectic Board. Dr. Adcox would obtain the examination questions in advance, and the whole delegation sat up all night, with brows swathed in wet towels, memorizing the answers so that they could produce them patly the next morning. In 1917 three alleged graduates of the Kansas City College presented themselves in Connecticut. The next year there were none, and in 1919 only two, but by 1922 the number jumped to 25, and there have been 39 so far in 1923.

The opening in Connecticut was too good to be confined to one school. Another of the cooperating institutions was the St. Louis College of Physicians and Surgeons. Official records show that in 1918 its graduates were barred from the licensing examinations of 38 states, including Missouri, and now they can sit only in Massachusetts, Wyoming, and the District of Columbia, where the law is inadequate to authorize the board to bar them, and in Connecticut, where they were examined by the Electric Board after the regular board had refused to consider them.

Occasionally a candidate couldn't get by even in Connecticut. One such unfortunate was urged to try Arkansas, where he was assured of success, and then to get reciprocity with Connecticut so that he could rejoin his friends in the east. Another student, failing (*Continued on page* 361)

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The Common Welfare

THE DEADLOCK with which the history of the Sixty-eighth Congress began is hardly a favorable augury either for the passage of needed legislation or for the intelligent consideration of such measures as do reach the floor. The Congress must decide as to the control of immigration after June 1924, when the present law expires, even if it is merely to renew the clumsy and often heart-breaking provisions of that law.

Doubtful as is the prospect of early action, pressure is already converging on Congress from many sources. Just as this issue appears, a national conference called by the National Industrial Conference Board is in session, presumably to formulate a policy behind which manufacturers can unite. Samuel Gompers reiterates in the New York World his familiar view that "the country will benefit by a continuance of the present degree of restriction, and there might be, with benefit, a reduction of the number of immigrants." Madison Grant's committee on selective immigration, a subcommittee of the Eugenics Committee of the United States, brings in a report in which immigration is considered as "a long-time investment in family stocks rather than a short-time investment in productive labor." While the text of this report is not available as we go to press, there are indications that it will lean heavily on the statement made to Congress last year by the secretary of this same sub-committee, H. H. Laughlin, who concluded that

> making all logical allowances for environmental conditions, which may be unfavorable to the immigrant, the recent immigrants, as a whole, present a higher percentage of inborn socially inadequate qualities than do the older stocks.

The conviction that the "recent immigrants," i. e., those from southern and eastern Europe, are clearly indicated as the villains of the piece, is the cornerstone on which modifications of the present quota law are likely to be founded. The proposal to base quotas on the census of 1890 is of course one of the most direct ways of further altering the complexion of the immigrant stream in favor of northwestern Europe. How justly this generalization can be traced to the evidence which Dr. Laughlin submitted may be judged from the careful and even-handed analysis which Professor Jennings makes of the Laughlin report on p. 309 of this issue. To those who seek a short-cut to a solution of the problem of racial selection through a neat geographical segregation of sheep from goats we particularly commend the somewhat startling indications of Dr. Laughlin's figures—for instance, as to the desirability of the Irish.

THE adolescent National Committee for Mental Hygiene—fourteen years old—is developing happily both within and without, showing no sign of conflict or other inhibition. At its annual meeting in November the medical director, Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, told of decreasing need for additional hospital facilities for the mentally sick, and increasing success in their rehabilitation. He pointed out, however, that the difficult task of actually preventing mental disorder seemed really hopeful, under present conditions, only if a concentrated effort was made to deal with the incipient problems of children and not-quite-grown-ups—from babyhood to college age.

Dr. V. V. Anderson, who directs the division on the prevention of delinquency, stressed another need for intensive development. The experimental work of his division in establishing psychiatric clinics for demonstration purposes, in connection with the Commonwealth Fund program, had convinced him that the need today was not for more clinics so much as better central clinics which would serve to establish sound principles and standards. The new clinics have been successful where skilled workers and strong agencies for the promotion of child welfare were available to cooperate with the psychiatrists and to carry through the treatment which the clinic prescribed; they have been unsuccessful where such dependable cooperation was lacking. The presence of a demonstration clinic becomes a searching test of all the resources which a city has for dealing with its children; it is a fresh challenge to intelligent functioning of school and church and home and public child-care; a fresh illustration of the fact that no single agency can go it alone.

Complementing these plans for a sharper focussing of effort, the secretary of the committee, Clifford W. Beers, outlined an interesting plan for an international congress on mental hygiene, to be held in this country in 1925. Already, due largely to the militant enthusiasm of the founder of the American Committee, similar organizations have been launched in many countries, notably up and down the length of the British Empire, and in Belgium, France and Brazil. The prestige which such an international congress would add to our own National Committee, and the interchange of thought in this field of investigation—still in a highly fluid state—should set forward both technique and public opinion.

A NATIONAL Advisory Committee on Indian Affairs meets this month on call of Secretary Work of the Department of the Interior. For the first time since the first administration of President Grant, the Red Indian problem is to be dealt with as a whole, on the basis of an acknowledged need for new policies and methods.

President Grant's "Peace Commission," fifty years ago, had the task of substituting civil administration for war in the government's dealings with the Indians, and the further task of finding means to curb the epidemic of graft which then prevailed in the Indian Service. The present National

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Advisory Council has a distinctly more complicated responsibility.

The committee's task might be stated in the following way:

A long experiment has been tried, whose guiding principles have been the establishment of individual land-holding by Indians, the destruction of tribal relations, the effacement of aboriginal culture, and the maintenance of trusteeship and guardianship over Indian property and person by a single bureau of the federal government. The appraisal of the results of this experiment is the committee's first duty.

This appraisal might lead to a reaffirmation by the advisory committee of the policies which have underlain Indian administration through these past fifty years. In that case, the committee would face the task of pointing out to the administration and Congress the ways to make law and administration conform to the underlying ideas of policy. There are thousands of laws affecting Indians, most of which have never been construed by the courts; there are thousands of executive regulations which have the power of law; and there is an administrative organization which has never been systematically overhauled since the establishment of the Indian Service. If the "individualization" policy be reaffirmed, there is none the less a big task of administrative reconstruction and legal codification still to be carried out.

It may be that the committee will not find the traditional policy to be in accord with its own present ideas. Cooperative and corporate land-holding is not merely a folkway of ancient primitive tribes, but it is a device which modern farmers and home owners resort to. Other nations have not found that the dissolution of tribal bonds and the crushing of native cultures was necessary to the work of giving aboriginal peoples modern advantages.

Should the National Advisory Committee bring modern concepts of anthropology and social control to bear on its problem, it may find itself challenging the very foundations of our traditional Indian policy. In that case, the committee will face a task of educating the congressional and public mind and of altering rather profoundly the administrative scheme of the Indian Bureau.

WHEN a state conference of social work depends for well-rounded membership upon a single large city, there is danger of the city dominating the state, of the tail wagging the dog. But when only a handful of the social workers of a large city are members of the conference, the tail is on the other foot, so to speak.

Some three hundred and fifty members attended the Illinois conference this autumn. Of these a score or so were from Chicago. Yet in Chicago alone there are 2500 social workers; 2480 stayed home although the conference was only three hours distant. Indiana fared better. Possibly because the conference was held in the adjoining county there was a fair-sized delegation from Indianapolis, but it was not large enough to be a truly representative gathering.

A conference is successful only when its membership represents all localities and all groups within the state. A lopsided membership means a lopsided program and still-born discussions. To assume that any city or any group is outside the scope of the conference is to assume that social problems are localized and stabilized. Such is not the case. So long as people migrate from Prairie Center to Chicago or from Indianapolis to Smithville, the city must be concerned with the problems of the state and the state with the problems of the city. The social worker in the big city handicaps himself if he refuses to gaze occasionally through the glasses of his fellow worker at the crossroads. Outside of the National Conference, the one place designed for this mutual broadening of vision is the state conference. But a state conference which brings together only certain groups and which is unattractive to others is failing of its purpose and will soon degenerate. If the conference machinery is in the hands of groups with whom social workers as a whole are unsympathetic, they have only themselves to blame.

THERE is always more or less stage business, conscious and unconscious, to a big drive for funds. The Detroit Community Fund this year made it both conscious and captivating by putting on a one-act play at the Capitol Theater. It was acted by an unusual group of amateurs; was used as part of the regular program of the theater (three performances a day) and about 75,000 people saw it.

Charity benefits are of course as old as the hills; and entertainment and money-raising have gone hand in hand time out of mind. But this Detroit adventure was rather of another class from the church fair, or the subscription dance or the musicale for the benefit of My Lady Benevolence. Its purpose was not gate receipts; but public education—the loosening of the purse strings of the imagination while the community drive was on. There was much friendly comment from the audiences.

Just as an ancient benefice might have put on a morality play in a way which won it popularity and understanding throughout a medieval country side, so The Man Around the Corner was put on in this most modern of cities by that most recent of philanthropic formations—the federation. And like the old morality plays, the author, Gordon A. Damon, publicity man of the Detroit Fund, drew his materials from the life about him; the setting being the front yard of a suburban residence of substantial brick and stucco, with a new Detroit automobile parked in the driveway. There is Edward Sterling the self-centered businessman (who is to be converted along with those 75,000 theater goers), the wife, the neighbor, the blind man, the crippled boy, the deserted girl—and the unnamed Man Around the Corner. "It's obvious and artistically awful," said a dramatic critic of ultra-modern bent who read the text. Harsh words, Nell! "But," he went on, "as a device for helping raise money for a community chest, I imagine it would be effective. Personally I wouldn't be able to resist it." With which sentiment the Detroit publicity man may have no great quarrel for, after all, he is in fairly good company. There is a touch of Miss Richmond's The Good Neighbor in his piece; a touch of Charles Rann Kennedy's Servant in the House; a touch, if you will, of the old morality plays. But a touch beyond that of Mr. Wrigley and all his works. This last touch is what is known

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as a clincher in a sales letter. Just before the curtain the Man Around the Corner steps forward and "in a soft, clear voice, he begins to declaim impersonally almost as a man in a dream, while the group on the porch stands transfixed."—

I am a father to the fatherless.
I succor those whom Fate hath left to mourn
In helpless poverty and deep despair,
Crushed and defenseless in their hour of need.
I am a rod of strength to those who fall
Unheeded from the scurrying ranks that swarm
Along life's road in quest of happiness;
I give them courage for another trial.
I am the light of hope to those whose faith
Has faltered in misfortune's bitter test;
I am the promise of a better day,
A harbinger of peace and new-found joy.
I am the "friend in need" to every man—
The sick and maimed, the aged and the young;
And none shall ever call on me in vain.
Thus I serve God—my name—is CHARITY.

And the advertising clincher: this final bit of stage direction:

(*At the word "Charity," the Emblem of the Community Fund is flashed on the gable end of the Sterling home.*) (*Curtain.*)

THE contribution which statisticians have made to social problems has not been merely that of measurement. Precise quantities they have given us instead of vague generalities; but in order to measure at all it has been necessary to analyze as well as to count. We have been fortunate in having statisticians with a social bent who have helped crystallize and clarify the subject matter with which they dealt; more, who have regarded statistics not only as a method of arriving at knowledge, not only as an audit of social conditions, but as a key to unlock springs of action. Such a man was John Koren of Boston who, while en route home from Europe on the Holland-America liner Nieuw Amsterdam and apparently suffering some mental derangement, threw himself overboard on November 9 last and was drowned. In addition to his private and public work in New England, Mr. Koren had for thirty years carried out commissions here and abroad for the U. S. Labor and Census Bureaus. In his capacity as expert special agent of the Census he did pioneer work in organizing data with respect to penal and charitable institutions. From his study of court statistics or the lack of them, he was one of the first to offer a new approach to the whole question of the administration of justice from the standpoint of social efficiency rather than that of legal precedent. It is his work in this field which undoubtedly led to his appointment as American member of the International Prison Commission to which he was successor to the late Charles Richmond Henderson and Samuel June Barrows.

Mr. Koren wrote an important federal bulletin on the padrone system when the abuses of immigrant workers by employment agents and padrone banks were at their height. From the time of his inquiry into the Gothenburg system in 1893 to his death he was a prolific writer on the liquor question. But it was in penology that he left the impress of work which can be compared with that of Hoffman in health and Ayers in education. To such men we are indebted for comparable statistics for the decades which begin the new century and for advances in technique which make the statistical method not only possible in its application to human data but fruitful.

NIELS BUKH and his Danish exponents of gymnastics, folk dancing and folk singing have come and gone—leaving behind a significant question. America is reputed to be greatly interested in education, in physical education and in athletics. Bukh has been called by competent European authorities "the present day's greatest discoverer in the physical education world"; he was heralded in America as the "Walter Camp of Denmark" (a not altogether accurate analogy); he offered a demonstration which, merely as a show, was called by one sophisticated person "the finest thing ever seen in New York." Yet, for all these facts, his tour of the East and Middle West was a financial failure, however much it may have accomplished educationally. In but two cities, New York and Chicago, where Danish societies supported him whole-heartedly, did the demonstration draw paying houses. Everywhere else, the story is one of a gradually mounting deficit. Why should this have been the case?

The Billboard, magazine of theatrical interests, said after the demonstration at the Town Hall, New York, in September: "The program throughout was given with such grace and rhythmic charm as to evoke repeated, long and enthusiastic applause." But one difficulty seems to have been that the program could not be classified. It was not "vaudeville," though reporters tried in several cities to make it just that. It was not a "follies," though lurid newspaper accounts told what would happen to the "follies" girls who would be foolish enough to compete with these Danish "Venuses" in beauty. It lacked the customary, decadent appeal to sex, though in one city efforts were made to match the champion Danish girl with the prize "bathing beauty" of that part of the country.

One explanation of the outcome may be found in an attitude which the reporters attributed to Bukh. Pressed to express his opinions on all sorts of things, he is quoted as saying:

Woman has assumed the truth of the time-worn bromide that "beauty is only skin deep"; hence, she spends hours before her mirror applying cosmetics. She should be spending that time giving herself the physical education she needs. America is at present composed of a race of women who are trying to reduce. They eat with blind fear and continue to grow fat. The secret of beauty does not lie in any fad. It is based on three things: suppleness or grace; strength; and a perfect coordination of mind and body. These three things can only be secured by exercise, in quantity and quality rightly applied.

Such opinions are, of course, fatal to the box office. We Americans do not spend our money to find out how we can exert ourselves into beauty, or quality, or excellence. When we spend money we want to get something for it. Neils Bukh gave us no short cut to glory. Excellent things cannot be bought, he seems to have been saying; they can be achieved only with labor. But we Americans know better: else, what's the use of having money?

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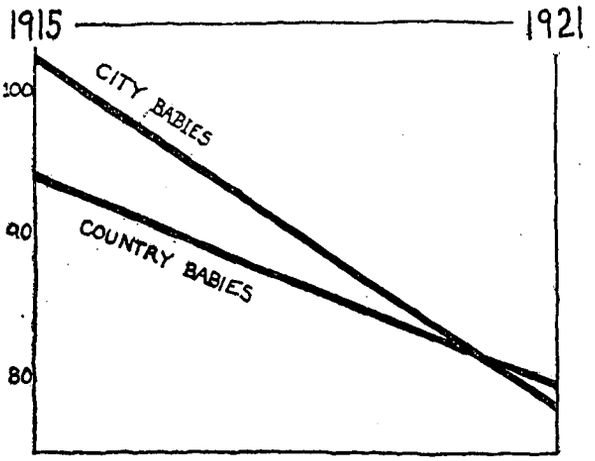
HEALTH

Save the Country Baby!

NATURALLY any program for the reduction of infant mortality must be studied in relation to the people we wish to reach, their social, economic, educational and religious status; the facilities at their disposal, and what official agency may come to their relief.

First, like the small boy, go out with a generous supply of salt and find your bird. You will wonder where the rural baby lives. His mother you will find reticent, inarticulate, and only a diplomat may draw from her the admission that she craves confidential advice and the legitimate service of an official agency. Just how helpful do you think she finds our smug letters and beautifully illustrated booklets urging her to go to a maternity center as soon as she knows that a baby is coming? Or our advice to call upon a public health nurse, or upon her family physician? Is it encouraging, or is it good psychology to assure her that her own welfare and that of her baby demand such service when there is no maternity center, no public health nurse and when she knows a doctor will laugh at her for requesting thorough examination, instruction and supervision during pregnancy?



As this graph shows, the deathrate for city babies—those in places of 10,000 population or more—has fallen sharply in recent years, in the face of concentrated health effort. The country deathrate, falling a little, has not kept pace; it is no longer true that the country baby has a better chance for life and health than one born in the city. Indeed the state of things in a rural state like Arkansas, as described in striking terms by Dr. Bradley, offers the toughest kind of a problem for organized health promotion. Since most rural areas are outside the registration area we do not even know when, where, or under what conditions country babies are born—or die. But we know that if child health programs are trimmed to fit the requirements of city children alone, needless death and preventable disease will persist among more than half of all American babies—those of the open country and small towns.

While she adores her babies and considers child-bearing a logical and desirable goal of marriage, is it likely that she deliberately brings on abortions, miscarriages or complications of confinement? Is it probable that she *chooses* for attendant, an ignorant negro granny who semi-asphyxiates her with smoking cotton to dull her pains; or who doses her baby with extract of bootleg booze and lice from the head of the paternal grandmother? Does she intentionally risk her life and that of her baby with a tradition-ridden white midwife who swathes her with steaming tansy to control convulsions; who hides, under the lying-in bed, an axe, a knife or a pair of scissors to cut short her pains; or who cups her baby up and down the spine with a tiny gourd to ward off "bold hives"?

Does she love her children less than the city woman and fail to grieve when, by the "hand of Providence," she loses five out of eight or six out of fourteen of the babies she has born?

Like the man who recalls his early record only as a conquering hero, she tells you only of the children she has reared. Others died so young that she did not quite want to leave them in the nearest burying ground, ten, twelve, fifteen miles away. Perhaps there was no undertaker or she could not afford a coffin. Instead, she lined a little home-made box with a bit of wedding finery and laid the baby out in the garden nearby. A death certificate may or may not be filed in the archives of the state board of health. It may state "Cause of death unknown. No doctor in attendance."

The rural woman is deeply religious. She believes the Lord will provide and that breast milk is one of his dispensations. In many sections of the country the nursing bottle is unknown. The rural woman is not subjected to the mental and nervous strain of the city woman and consequently nurses her baby indefinitely or until he weans himself. Is it her fault, or yours and mine, that he is found nursing at two, three and four years of age; and that his father teaches him to smoke before he is weaned? Is it her fault, or yours and mine, that one mother reported nursing her baby eighty-six months and added that he would stop on the back porch and dispose of his chew of tobacco before coming in from school to nurse? Yet this was a conscientious mother who brought her child a long way through the country to find out why he was such a stunted little runt.

While breast-feeding is the rule, the country baby also partakes, at a tender age, of a lavish and promiscuous diet. It is common for the baby of one to three months to be given a taste of everything the mother eats, to protect him from colic. In her solicitude she often chews for him such food as he is unable to mouth, but never doubt her honesty and sincerity or her devotion to her baby. She is living up to her teaching and it is not her fault if her teaching is pitched on a different plane. What provisions are we making to change this plane?

Whose is the responsibility? Is her child the charge of an indulgent, untrained, helpless family? Is he the charge or the victim of a cumbersome, rusty, political machine, short-sighted, without precedent or ideal? Is this the way the case of the city child was solved and the early infant

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mortality of urban sections was brought under control? Is it not rather the right, the privilege of the great national organizations, of the United States Children's Bureau and of all agencies committed to the welfare of babies, to apply the knowledge and experience obtained by years of study of the city problem, to that of the country? Have they not by their past achievements, given us the right to expect constructive help in the organization of state, county and community programs? Such help would be especially helpful since the enactment of the Sheppard-Towner Law. Have you done for the rural baby as much as for the baby within your gates?

IN our own rural state—Arkansas—the efforts of the Bureau of Child Hygiene, the official agency for the reduction of infant mortality, are directed along the lines of organization, education, demonstration.

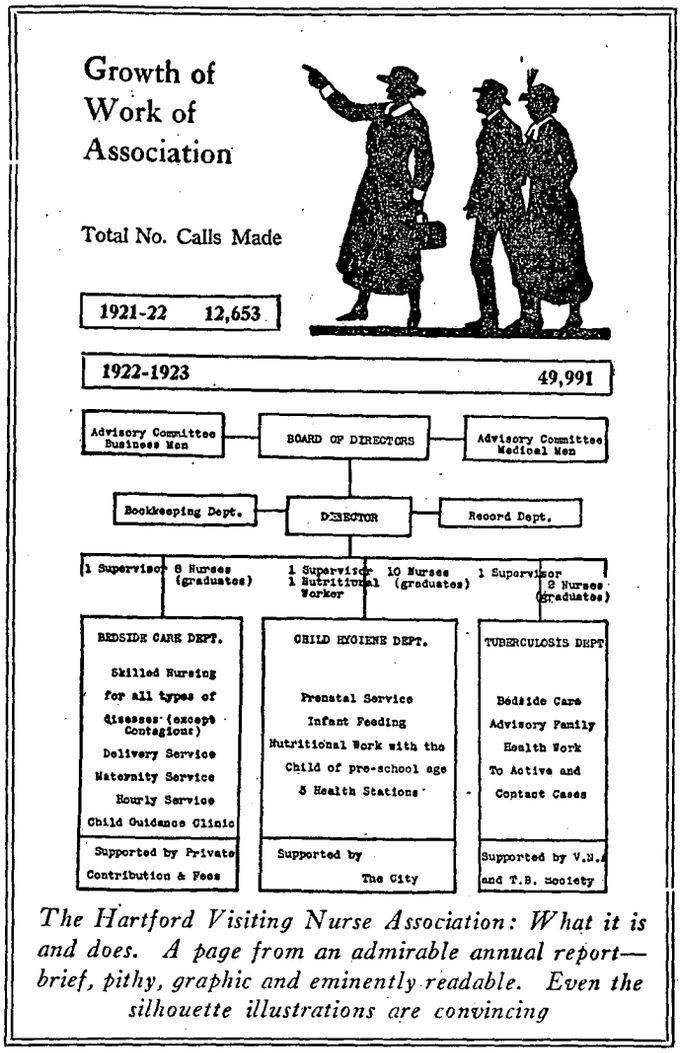
By organization of existing agencies we hope to coordinate and unify the efforts of every group interested in this important part of our program. We find that practically every organization in the state is interested and ready to do its part. This includes the state university and department of public instruction; the state department of agriculture with home demonstration agents in almost every county; American Red Cross and state anti-tuberculosis association; men's groups of Rotarians, Civitans, "Ad" men and others; women's groups of church and charitable organizations, League of Women Voters, school improvement associations and the state federation of women's clubs. Negroes also are eager and responsive.

Along the lines of education lies our long suit, for it involves our entire public. The excellent programs, with highly specialized activities, reported by city agencies are mere dreams to a primitive state like Arkansas and other southern states. We hope to catch up with you some day, and hereby warn you that we are on the way. But it is hard sledding at the start. We must begin with our doctors. The rural doctor of romance is a bulwark of strength and dependence, fighting night and day to save the life, health and happiness of his—I had almost said parishioners, for he is the repository of all their troubles from scabies to salvation; while the rural doctor as we sometimes find him, refuses to go four miles to a woman in convulsions; leaves an ignorant midwife to herself to manipulate and struggle with a club-footed baby; and refuses often to attend a woman in confinement unless paid in advance.

Perhaps he is a graduate physician, perhaps not; sometimes, according to one of our legislators, he is licensed by the general assembly to practice medicine, upon assurance of his ability to differentiate dandruff from bunions. He tells us frankly that our educational work is all "bunk," tending only to undermine the confidence of the public in the medicine man and giving rise to doubt and dissatisfaction in the community. Again, he protests that he sees no reason why doctors and nurses should busy themselves trying to take the bread out of the mouths of the profession. Happily this man is not the rule but he is uncomfortably common and is active in his section. We will gratefully consider suggestions for changing his viewpoint.

Our nurses are public-spirited, fine-visioned women—but few and far between. We have county health nurses in thirteen of our seventy-five counties, and the service instead of growing is steadily dwindling with the shrinkage of Red Cross drives. It is necessary to keep an eagle eye on this ill-fated thirteen to offset outside temptations in the form of matrimony or of more lucrative jobs elsewhere. We are inoculating every graduate nurse with the germ of public health and every public health nurse with the bug of maternal and infant mortality. We are trying to comfort ourselves for the loss of a five-year demonstration with the scholarship assigned recently to our director of public health nursing; and we have hopes of favorable consideration by the American Red Cross of our application for a Jane A. Delano nurse for an isolated mountain county. These details, trivial to states counting nurses by the score, are momentous to Arkansas.

We have fifteen hundred registered midwives and probably many times that number unregistered, who are totally untrained. It is impossible to license these women. Instead, we shall attempt to register, organize and to give a simple systematic course of instruction in the fundamentals of asepsis for mother and child; in the importance of calling medical aid in all but normal cases and in the prompt registration of births. We are hoping eventually to issue a certificate to each midwife completing this course satisfactorily and that when framed and hung upon the walls of her home, this may bring prestige to its proud possessor and be the means of gradually eliminating her less ambitious colleagues. We shall supervise their work as closely as possible and encourage the determination of the old granny who protested recently "Lawd no, chile, I'se gwine ter git out o' dis yer business."



The Hartford Visiting Nurse Association: What it is and does. A page from an admirable annual report—brief, pithy, graphic and eminently readable. Even the silhouette illustrations are convincing

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Our educational campaign depends largely upon the temper and spirit of the press. They have been uniformly generous with their space as long as supplied with what they call "local stuff." The infant mortality of Ouachita County means much to Ouachita citizens. Another form of publicity is in the form of nine simple booklets. It may be poor business to add to the multiplicity of literature cluttering the field of child welfare endeavor today. However for ten years we have studied carefully our rural audience; we have watched its reaction to the average exhibit, the average booklet and leaflet, the average advice given by the average city worker. We are trying to get the viewpoint of the man and woman whom we want to reach instead of thrusting upon them our city notions. More than once we have been surprised to find ourselves gaining more than we could give.

The average rural couple enters into the marriage state more seriously than the average city couple. Their marriage certificate carries no divorce coupon and birth control is to them an abomination. In our first booklet to the newly married couple, no mention is made of child-bearing, but both man and woman are urged to have a thorough examination and be sure that they are in good physical condition. In the second booklet, stress is laid upon the responsibility of citizenship and upon the establishment of a home—convenient, attractive and a definite contribution to the community in which they live. This to offset the problem of tenancy which is a real menace to our Southland. Given good inheritance by securing a sound mother and father, and good environment by obtaining a suitable home for a young baby, we have paved the way for the consideration of pregnancy in the third booklet and so on through the care of confinement, care of the young baby and of the child up to school age.

The third of our efforts to reduce infant mortality will be the demonstration in certain localities of the value of maternity and infancy centers. By such demonstrations we hope to educate our public to the fact that our early infant mortality is a very present and definite factor in hindering and retarding the progress of our state. This practical project will be initiated by the Bureau of Child Hygiene in counties sufficiently interested to continue the work after a reasonable demonstration.

Especially helpful as a demonstration has been a survey of a county by a county, themselves studying by house-to-house visits, under direction of the Bureau of Child Hygiene, conditions affecting their own mothers and young children. Data thus collected are turned into the office of our bureau, tabulated and arranged in the form of a report, which is submitted to the county for further action. Much hitherto unknown and illuminating information is thus placed at the disposal of those most concerned and apparently furnishes food for reflection and for definite action by those in authority. The only objection to this type of work is our inability to respond to the number of requests for such surveys.

FRANCES SAGE BRADLEY, M.D.

East Harlem Health Center: It Works

PEOPLE said it couldn't work—that the troubles of the Old Woman Who Lived in a Shoe wouldn't be a circumstance to the friction and adjustments involved in bringing a score or more organizations—Protestant and Catholic, Jewish and Gentile, official and voluntary—under the same roof to show they could do better work together than apart. They said that war time was different, but that except for emergencies like wars or earthquakes, the natural attachment of human beings for their own ways was such that you had to give in to it. Therefore, with justice, the executive committee of the East Harlem Health Center felt that its biggest job was done when the center opened its doors on September 1, 1921, with an impressive sign announcing here you could find representatives of the New York City Department of Health and of twenty-two New York or national agencies for health or social welfare.

Some with a persistent vision of the real hardships of traipsing long city blocks from clinic to clinic carrying a heavy baby while you tried to find the place where a dentist could help the seven-year-old's toothache; or of the fatigue of an already overworked social worker, who found that it was not the nutrition clinic, but the cardiac clinic half a mile away to which she must urge the flagging feet of the "big sister" of the Cantasio family; some one with a real enthusiasm for the possibilities of cooperation and concentration, urged the health center idea until the American Red Cross, acting through the New York County Chapter, set aside $168,000 to buy and maintain the buildings and make possible a practical three-years' test. Obviously a group of health services could be provided more cheaply in one building, where equipment and personnel could be pooled, than in scattered separate outposts; but how much more cheaply? And would the lessened cost and other advantages offset disadvantages, real or anticipated, which were easily enough recognized by the most casual observer.

After two years the answer of the East Harlem Health Center is an unequivocal "yes." The biggest job of the executive committee was done when the Center opened, but the real test for the people who worked there had to come later, with the strain of each day's efforts to pull together to meet the needs of the 112,000 human beings of the district. In the two years no important difficulty has arisen. Instead the members of each of the former groups feel that they have been able to do more work, and better work, because of the association. Moreover, getting together to take stock of what they had among them, naturally called attention to what they hadn't, and some of the obvious gaps in East Harlem's equipment for health are being filled in.

As Homer Folks, chairman of the executive committee, pointed out at the second annual meeting, the most important results of the experiment are not susceptible of exact state-

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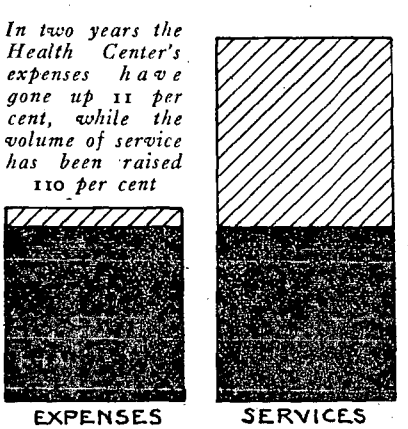
mate how much time and effort and anxiety has been saved to the clientele of the Center by the knowledge that here, at this one place, they can find treatment or advice for any problem affecting their health. This consideration is of special importance in a large city, where many families are handicapped by unfamiliarity with the language and with American ways of organization, and at the same time so limited in the amount of time which they can take from the housework or the job for any but the most urgent demands of health. Moreover, any one piece of health work could be done in the most complete way. When you have won over Carlo and his family to the need of having his bad tonsils out, it is much more likely that you can and will succeed in having him followed up in a cardiac clinic if he can find it at a familiar address. People who came for one purpose learned, without effort, of other ways in which they could protect themselves and their families. Mrs. Casatti came to have the baby weighed, and incidentally saw the merits of the Schick test put forth so simply and reasonably that she decided to take one for the toddler pulling bashfully at her skirts.

IN two ways, however, an idea can be gained of the stimulus and economy which the idea has proved—by the new services it has been possible to offer and the increase in the volume of measurable service. During the first year the Bureau of Preventable Diseases of the New York City Department of Health opened a clinic for general medical examinations; a former function of the American Red Cross was expanded to a Health Information Bureau, where you could find out about clinics, the city's resources in hospitals, convalescent homes, or ways to health other than those of the Center itself; a new child health station, and a new dental clinic, cardiac clinic, and psychiatric clinic were opened. In each of these undertakings two or more of the cooperating organizations worked together. The cardiac clinic, for example, is under the direction of the Association for the Prevention and Relief of Heart Disease, while Henry Street Nurses organized its system of record and follow-up. In the second year came a program for health education in the schools, a new maternity and child welfare center for the mothers at the northern end of the dictrict, the East Harlem Nursing Demonstration, and the house-to-house canvass.


In two years the Health Center's expenses have gone up 11 per cent, while the volume of service has been raised 110 per cent
EXPENSES
SERVICES

There is a certain limit, the workers at the Center felt, to the power of printed words to introduce you and your ideas to the neighbors. If the neighbors couldn't be induced in that manner to call at the Center, the Center would have to go to them. Accordingly the house-to-house canvass was planned, and the nurses paid friendly visits to about 8,000 families, explaining themselves and their work, telling where the Center was and why, and noting the babies or children too young to be in school. Obviously the organizations apart could not have spared the time for such a canvass; East Harlem housewives could hardly have given them all time and attention, and the confusion of a multiplicity of visits and instructions is obvious.

How best to teach health in the schools was the subject of a competition under the direction of the American Child Health Association, cooperating with the center and the city departments of health and education. Thirty-eight teachers entered the contest to compete for the two scholarships offered by the Red Cross. So that these same teachers would have the best possible human material to work with, the Center, bringing together three health agencies and the two interested municipal departments, had more than 700 children examined before they entered the first grades last fall, and followed them up to see that the correctable defects were corrected.

THE Nursing Demonstration is a demonstration within a demonstration. The East Harlem Health Center as a whole is a working model which almost any city could follow, with modifications to suit its own needs and resources. The Nursing Demonstration, on the other hand, aims to find out how and at what cost you can do the best possible job in promoting the health of a given district. It covers two of the sanitary areas of the East Harlem district —about 40,000 people. Its budget of $65,000 is met half by the Rockefeller Foundation and half by the four agencies who are cooperating in it: the Henry Street Visiting Nurses, the Maternity Center Association, the A. I. C. P. and the Red Cross. So far it has established a medical nutrition consultation clinic, a post-natal examination clinic, a diagnostic and health advice clinic, pre-school and pre-natal clinics, a cradle class, a posture class, and a mothers' club.

On the quantitative side it is possible to tell more exactly what the Center has meant to East Harlem. In the first eighteen months nearly 15,000 different people—almost a seventh of the population of its territory—called upon it for treatment and advice. In the second year there were 78,833 health and welfare visits to the Center; 85,468 nursing and welfare visits to the homes. Taking the two categories of patients' visits to clinics, and nurses' visits to patients, the first year showed an increase of 81 per cent over the pre-Center activities of the agencies, and the second year of 134 per cent. But while the work was increased by 134 per cent, the expenses rose only 30 per cent! Omitting the Nursing Demonstration, which is a special piece of work partially for research, which only a few centers could hope to emulate, the first year of coordination and cooperation showed 81 per cent more work—based on these tangible records—at an added cost of 10 per cent; the second year, 110 per cent more work, and 11 per cent greater cost. On the old basis it would have cost $120,000 to put on the extra services achieved through the Center; by combining, it actually was done for $16,000. East Harlem workers feel that they have only scratched the surface of the work to be done—but at least they have found the method. It works.

M. R.

Through the generosity of the Carpenter-Goldman Studios the East Harlem Health Center has been able to have a "movie" made of its work, which will be loaned to groups of people interested in the health center idea and how it works. Requests should be sent to Kenneth Widdemer, Executive Officer of the East Harlem Health Center, 345 East 116 St., New York City.

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City Health Departments As They Are and Should Be

BULLETIN 136 of the United States Public Health Service makes available to the whole country the report of the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice of the American Public Health Association—the result of three years' labor by a committee of experts. At last, we know the outstanding facts in the work of the municipal health departments of the country. It is no longer necessary to discuss these public health agencies either vaguely or on the basis of opinion. As a result, the program of public health work in the immediate future may be developed on the basis of the actual conditions.

For a number of years, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company had planned to stimulate the development of more efficient health departments in American cities. But, before any forward step might be taken, it was necessary that the facts on the present situation be gathered to show how great was the variety of service, what actually was being spent by the various communities of the country, and how such appropriations as were available were being used. The collection of such basic facts could best be accomplished through the association of the health officers themselves, namely, the American Public Health Association. The company was willing, therefore, to help finance such an investigation if that association would undertake to collect the data. This offer was accepted and Professor Winslow of Yale University was appointed chairman of a committee of public health workers of the association, including Dr. Charles V. Chapin of Providence, Dr. Wade H. Frost of the U. S. Public Health Service, Professor Allen W. Freeman of Johns Hopkins University, and Dr. Donald B. Armstrong of tfhe National Health Council. Later Dr. Lewis R. Thompson of the U. S. Public Health Service, and Dr. Haven Emerson, of Columbia University, were added.

A full questionnaire covering every phase of municipal health practice was filled out by a representative of the committee in each of the eighty-three large cities in consultation with the health officer, and the facts checked by observation wherever possible. An enormous collection of information resulted, and it proved to be a difficult but an enlightening task to bring order and a purposeful story out of the assembled data. Most appropriately the ensuing volume was issued as a document of the United States Public Health Service, which sponsored the investigation and, in fact, carried the brunt of the field work through the assignment of many of its officers for service to the committee.

A few of the outstanding facts of the report are here summarized.

The Health Officer

The health officer is a whole-time employe in 53 out of the 83 cities studied. In 30, he is a part-time official. Part-time service is, with but two exceptions, limited to the smaller cities, that is, those under 250,000 population. In these cities, about one-half of the officers are on part-time. In 73 out of the 83 cities, the health officer is a physician. Special public health training is claimed by ten of the 83 officers, and these ten are evenly distributed among the cities, irrespective of size. Close to half of the officers had no previous public health experience prior to appointment to their present position. A little over a fifth of them had been in office less than one year and nearly 60 per cent had been in office less than five years; nearly 14 per cent had been in office twenty years or more. Appointment is under the provision of the civil service law in a little over 68 per cent of the cities. In about 70 per cent of the cities, it is stated that subordinate employes are not disturbed by changes in the general city administration. Salaries of health officers vary with the size of the city. Full-time officers in the larger cities, that is, in those with 500,000 and over, received approximately $6,500 annually; those in cities of the second class, between 250,000 and 500,000, about $5,200; and those in smaller cities, an average of $4,000 per annum. Part-time health officers averaged $3,100.

Twelve Cents or $1.05?

The average expenditure in 1920 for all types of health work carried on by municipal health departments was 97.4 cents per capita. Of this total sum, 51.6 cents per capita were expended for health service in the narrow sense; 36.3 cents for hospital service; 8.0 cents for garbage and refuse disposal, and 1.6 cents for miscellaneous services. Health service, as such, covers the usual department functions that deal directly with the protection of the public. The expenditure for this type of work was highest in the largest cities, that is, those with 500,000 people and over. The average expenditure was close to 56 cents per capita in them; it was close to 49 cents in the group of cities between 250,000 and 500,000, and 44 cents per capita in the cities under 250,000. The city of Bridgeport showed the largest per capita expenditure for health service with $1.05 per capita. Yonkers came next with 94 cents and Flint with 88 cents per capita. At the other end of the scale, are Scranton with an expenditure of a little less than 12 cents per capita and Wilmington with 16 cents per capita. Between these maximal and minimal figures, fifty per cent of the cities show an expenditure between 34 and 59 cents per capita.

The several chapters of the report show clearly how these sums are expended in the various divisions of the public health departments. Sanitary inspection in the average city costs 9.1 cents per capita; administration, 5.3 cents; the control of communicable diseases, 7.3 cents; tuberculosis, 1.5 cents; venereal disease, 1.2 cents; infant welfare work, 3.6 cents; school health supervision, 3.9 cents; public health nursing, 1.6 cents; food inspection, 6.7 cents; and, finally, vital statistics, 1.5 cents. It is needless to say that a great variety of conditions prevails in the group of 83 cities under observation. In the larger cities, for example,

A YEAR AGO the American Public Health Association voted to free itself from entangling alliances with promoters or propagandists and establish itself as a forum for the practitioners of preventive medicine. As such it is building the scientific foundation of fact and deduction on which a constructive future can be based. Its monumental report on municipal health department practice, based on a survey of the eighty-three largest cities of the United States, has recently been published as a government document. Dr. Dublin of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company writes of this report and of the association's plans to help communities realize the part which their own departments of health are playing, and harmonize them with those policies which have been found most practical and effective.

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school health supervision has been extensively developed, costing 5.1 cents per capita, as against only a little over 2 cents in the cities of smaller size. On the other hand, certain functions like public health nursing have been more amply provided for in the cities between 250,000 and 500,000, where the cost is 3.2 cents per capita, as against an expenditure of 1.1 cents in the large cities having more than 500,000 and 1.5 cents in the cities having less than 250,000. The cost of hospital service is highest in the larger cities where it reaches a per capita of 45 cents. It is only slightly less in the cities of the second class from 250,000 to 500,000, where the amount is 41.5 cents, but is least in the smaller cities, 250,000 and under, where hospital service costs only 14 cents per capita.

Checking Communicable Disease

The control of the communicable diseases is fairly well standardized in municipal health departments, but a survey of the facts does not lead the author of this section of the report to any marked enthusiasm. The reporting of the communicable diseases is still of widely variable efficiency in the different cities and is very incomplete in most of them. Investigation of sources of infection in cases of communicable disease is carried on only in a few cities. There is great uniformity of procedure in the control of diphtheria and scarlet fever, although there is wide variation in the duration of quarantine. On the other hand, there is much variation in the practice of different cities in connection with the control of measles, mumps and chickenpox. Some cities exercise no control, while others isolate these diseases almost as rigidly as they do scarlet fever. There is great variety also in the control of whooping cough. There is as yet no agreement as to what should be done with cases and contacts of poliomyelitis and meningitis. In spite of the general conviction that gaseous disinfection is unnecessary, this method has not as yet been replaced in terminal disinfection in a majority of the surveyed cities.

Perhaps the most remarkable feature brought out by the study is the fact that the municipal health departments play, in most cities, only a minor part in the anti-tuberculosis work of the communities. In only 46 out of 83 cities are there municipal tuberculosis clinics; in only 45 are there health department tuberculosis nurses; in only 29 has the health department any specific appropriation definitely allocated to tuberculosis work; in only 13 is there a separate bureau of tuberculosis; and in only six is there a full-time director at hand.

To Do a Good Job

Section II, prepared by Professor Winslow, gives the budget of an ideal health department which the committee has formulated for a city of 100,000, crystallizing the constructive thought of the committee. The recommendations are based on the actual findings in the cities studied and have due regard to the present-day needs of health departments, presenting the best practice of the day in each of the various lines of health department work. Yet, modest as this budget is, it is interesting to observe how much it is in excess of the actual amounts now available in the great majority of the cities.

As against the average per capita expenditure of 97.4 cents, the committee recommends a per capita expenditure of $2.35. Only four cities now reach this maximum for total health expenditure, namely, Pittsburgh, Pa. ($2.87); San Francisco, Cal. ($2.89); Seattle, Wash. ($3.18); and Bridgeport ($2.97). Of this total, health service in the narrow sense would account for $1.95 per capita, or about four times the average allotments made for municipal health departments at the present day. On the other hand, hospital service, which now averages a little over 36 cents in all cities and well over 40 cents in the cities of 250,000 and over, would call for an expenditure of only 40 cents per capita in the ideal arrangement proposed by the committee.

A valuable section of the report is that prepared by Dr. Emerson giving for each of the 83 cities a concise and enlightened summary of the health department organization and service. All of the high spots of attainment, as well as of deficiency, are pointed out. Those who are interested in any particular city may see at once what public health activities are needed in order to bring the particular city up to the level of the best or at least to those of average attainment. Probably this section will be the most used in the constructive work of the committee in the future.

Carrying On

The warm reception which the work of the committee has received from all quarters, both from official and from voluntary agencies, has encouraged the committee to continue and even to extend its operations. Its immediate program is two-fold. First, it has arranged for the continued collection of information on the activities of health departments through the timely and enthusiastic cooperation of the United States Public Health Service. Surgeon-General Cumming has arranged for the establishment within the service of an office of Administrative Health Practice and has assigned to this work Surgeon Paul Preble whose long experience fits him admirably for this type of survey work. The full file of records of the committee has been transferred to Dr. Preble's office—the nucleus of an historical and current file of municipal health work which will be at the service of all persons interested in the field. The first objective of the committee has thus been achieved through the establishment of a permanent and official clearing house of authentic information on municipal health practice.

The second purpose of the committee has been to utilize to the full the information which it had already available and to put its knowledge to work. Public health administration is after all in a dynamic rather than in a static condition. The health officials of the country desire to develop the machinery now at their disposal to the highest point of efficiency. To this end, they must obtain larger appropriations sufficient to meet the fuller requirements. It has, therefore, seemed to the committee that the most important service that it could at this time render would be to establish a field service for the assistance of executive officers of health departments along the above lines. The funds necessary for the establishment of this service were secured from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, which has guaranteed the sum of $15,000 necessary to carry on the work for the year 1923-1924. The committee was most fortunate to be able to obtain the services of Dr. W. S. Rankin, secretary of the state board of health of North Carolina, who has obtained a leave of absence from his state for a year. As field director of the committee, he will be at the service of the individual members of the American Public Health Association in aiding them through correspondence,

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personal visits, and special service to build up the status of public health work in their individual communities.

Awards for Health Progress

The immediate objective of the committee is best expressed in the words of the chairman, Prof. C.-E. A. Winslow, in his report presented to the American Public Health Association at its recent meeting in Boston. He said:

> Your committee has felt that it would be of inestimable value to the health officer who is striving to secure moral and financial backing for a constructive public health program if there were available not only objective standards by which the need for a rounded health program could be demonstrated but also some definite machinery by which such standards could be brought to the attention of municipal officials and the general public. We have felt it to be essential to the success of our objectives to create machinery of this sort. As a first step, it has seemed that a spirit of generous rivalry between communities could be promoted by offering a series of medals in recognition of attainment and advancement in community health service. The first series of these medals (gold, silver, and bronze) we suggest may be awarded at the 1924 meeting of the American Public Health Association to the three cities of a population of 100,000 and upward which can show the most nearly adequate community health service as of January 1924. The status of the different cities should be determined by personal surveys to be conducted by representative agents of the committee, rated on a scoring plan. . . . The scoring should take into account all health agencies forming a part of the community health program (voluntary as well as official). It is the purpose of the committee that in awarding similar medals in succeeding years the selection of the winners in the competition will be based not only on actual attainment, but also on progress since January 1924, and it is hoped that scholarships or other methods of recognizing eminent personal accomplishment as well as community achievement may be introduced in the future to develop a spirit of emulation in health services through the country.

At the present time, the committee is engaged in developing its rating schedule, in getting in close touch with the leading health officers of the country and in testing out its plans. It would be of inestimable value to the committee if social workers and others interested in public health locally became familiar with the report in general and also took stock of the local situation as disclosed in the report. The health officer will need the support and the stimulation of those who lead the voluntary health work of the community. They, very often better than any one else, can organize the public support which every health officer needs in the fulfilment of his plans. It would be well for the local agencies to keep this committee of the American Public Health Association in mind whenever they are ready to develop their local campaigns and to count on the services of Dr. Rankin and his staff for consultation and for guidance in the development of their effort.

LOUIS I. DUBLIN

NOT EVEN the busy practicing physician is too busy to realize the need of continued education in his profession. Early last summer the Public Health Service sent circular letters to employes of health departments, nurses, and doctors in five states, asking whether or not they would be interested in attending public health institutes covering a period of six or eight weeks. About 20,000 letters were sent out, and practically all of the 6,000 replies favored the idea, the majority of them preferring the summer to other seasons, and favoring local institutes as opposed to a central course at Washington. In these five states alone 2,000 doctors, 1,000 nurses, and 1,000 employes of health departments would like to continue their education in preventive medicine, if the institute could be held in a place accessible to them. The Public Health Service is at work on plans, to be announced later, for establishing such summer schools another year.

IN THE MEAN TIME, North Carolina, which has no medical teaching center, has tried an interesting plan of taking postgraduate medical education to her doctors in their own communities. Two circuits of six cities each were chosen, and to each of them a lecturer, distinguished in the medical profession, was assigned. In each city a series of twelve weekly talks was given, followed by clinical demonstrations, the talks covering a series of diseases especially difficult of diagnosis. Of the 450 physicians in these communities, 198 enrolled for the course, and despite the exigencies of a physician's life, the attendance averaged 85 per cent. The cost of organizing the courses was met by the Extension Division of the University of North Carolina; the salaries and expenses of the lecturers were covered by the fees paid by the physicians who enrolled in the courses.

SOME MONTHS AGO Secretary Work reminded the country that the Negro health problem is in part one of a lack of educational facilities for Negro doctors and nurses. There is a white physician to every 533 white persons in the United States; a colored physician to every 3,194 colored persons. Negro dentists are even fewer in number—one to every 20,500 colored persons, as compared with a white dentist to every 2,070 persons of his race. "The reason for this," he reported, "is not in the disinclination of colored youths to study medicine and adopt it as a profession but in the lack of medical schools maintained exclusively for their education." In recent discussions in Kansas City the Negro physicians themselves opposed the establishment of a larger hospital for colored patients because they felt the lack of enough adequately trained physicians and surgeons of their race to maintain a staff. Of special interest, therefore, is the opening of a ward for Negro children in the Wheatley Provident Hospital of that city, which is used as a kind of postgraduate teaching center for Negro doctors and nurses, who are invited to attend and assist at the clinics and operations, conducted by members of the staffs of the leading hospitals of the city, and to study cases, records, and methods of treatment in the ward or in other wards of the hospital.

NEW CONFIRMATION of the growing returns on the interest of health workers and of the Negroes themselves in the special health problems of that race comes in the recent announcement by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company that the life expectancy of their colored policy-holders in 1922 was five years greater than that of a decade earlier. "While Negro mortality is still in excess of that among white persons," the company declares, "the gap between the rates for the two races is being closed. . . . This is being accomplished by the organized public health movement, and by the Negroes themselves through their press and other facilities for dissemination of instruction in hygiene. The most powerful factor of all, however, is the rise in the level of well-being for the Negro, brought about by better economic conditions."

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

Better Doctoring—Less Dependency

TO WAIT until disease and physical defect have created a spectacular situation, has long been regarded by health authorities and social workers alike as a piece of folly beyond comprehension. Nevertheless it is only in the fields of sanitation, control of contagious disease and school medical inspection, that real preventive measures have been broadly applied. The early discovery of many other health dangers implies the examination of apparently well people. It is one thing, however, to recognize this obvious truth, but it is quite another to get it applied on any widespread basis. Where to get physicians who have the time to examine well people, how to get well people to be examined, are practical questions over which many a social case worker has despaired. Meanwhile, many carefully laid plans for family care have gone in the discard because there was lacking an accurate knowledge of the health condition of each of the family. In order to test this need accurately the New York Committee on Dispensary Development of the United Hospital Fund entered into special arrangements with the United Hebrew Charities and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. All the members of certain of the families under the care of these agencies were given examinations and the recommendations were carefully followed up to see what facilities existed in the city for obtaining the required treatment. Dr. Anna Mann Richardson, who reports the examinations and the results, is on the staff of the Committee on Dispensary Development.

DURING the past year 1,000 clients of family case-work agencies have been examined in connection with the work of the Committee on Dispensary Development of the United Hospital Fund. The type of examination used was that for detecting defects. Each client came to the doctor with a careful social, industrial and medical history filled in by the worker acquainted with the family. A technician made simple tests of vision, hearing, temperature, pulse, weight, height, urine and hemoglobin. The physician spent an average of 15 minutes on examination. He summarized the findings on each case, indicating needed medical treatment, numbered in accordance with their importance.

Examinations were made for the United Hebrew Charities in their district offices, the doctors, nurses, social workers and equipment traveling from office to office. For the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the examinations were held at their Mulberry Community House, to which families came from all parts of the city to be examined. The preparation of the records and the follow-up was done by the personnel of the two agencies as a part of their regular work. It must be understood that the examinations included only those members of families who were not so sick as to be confined to home or hospital. The statistics resulting from these examinations, therefore, do not give a picture of the total amount of sickness among a thousand clients of social agencies, but they do show the proportion of diseases and defects discovered among those able to be up and about.

From the point of view of agencies concerned primarily in the development of individuals competent for self-support and for support of dependents, the important medical classification is that relating to economic efficiency, present and potential.

Among the 1,000 cases studied we have four groups as shown in the accompanying box, including 82 men, 340 women and 578 children. Only 54 persons, about one in twenty, were found to be in good condition, not incapacitated and free from diseases or defects needing treatment. Of these the majority were young, over four-fifths being infants and children. All the rest suffered from one or more defects, varying in the degree to which they affected economic capacity, as follows:

More than two-fifths of the thousand (405) had diseases or defects which although they were not incapacitating at the time of the examination would, if neglected, result in lowering their general economic efficiency. These were grouped as having "Incipient Incapacity," and suffered from such conditions as defective vision, bad teeth or posture, and reduced hearing. The largest proportion, 61 per cent, of the children came in this group.

A slightly larger proportion, or nearly half (467) were suffering from defects which at the time were interfering with their working efficiency. These were mostly adults, 78 per cent of the women and 55 per cent of the men coming under the heading of temporary incapacity, while 28 per cent of the children were thus hindered from normal development. Among the defects resulting in temporary incapacity were severe forms of flat feet, enteroptosis, undernutrition, cardiac defects and asthma. These differed from the defects causing incipient incapacity not necessarily in kind but in degree and in duration. All of the defects in the second and third groups could be relieved under favorable conditions—including the state of mind of the examinees and their willingness to change habits.

Finally there was a small group of 65 with defects of such seriousness as permanently to affect their working and earning capacity. This does not mean that all these persons were totally disabled, but that their defects were so extensive or had progressed so far that they could not be completely relieved, or so eliminated as to restore full working strength. About 90 per cent might be made more comfortable through treatment. It is notable that only 3 per cent of the children were in this group and most of these were suffering from mental defect rather than from disease. Among the defects resulting in permanent incapacity were mental defects, organic heart lesions and lung conditions.

The age distributions are significant, as most of the children were either well, or suffering from defects only incipiently incapacitating, which might for the most part

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be removed, while the more seriously incapacitated were adults, many of whom if seen earlier might have been kept from falling below par in working capacity. The whole result points to the necessity for early detection of defects.

The number of men is small and their condition is relatively serious, over half being temporarily incapacitated and more than one in five permanently so. This is the usual condition of men in families dealt with by family case-work agencies. Fathers are usually either dead, absent or invalided. The following summary of 138 cases where this information was accurately determined illustrates this point:

Fathers	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Total	138	110
1. Examined	25	18
2. Not examined because		
Dead	51	36
Deserted	23	17
Ill at home	21	16
In prison	8	6
In hospital	7	5
Insane	3	2
Total not examined	113	82

Physical Defects and Disabilities Discovered

Nine individuals were found to be in need of immediate bed care in a hospital. The rest were suffering from a multitude of small and frequently relievable defects, rather than from serious conditions of disease. As noted above, members of families so sick as to be unable to come for examination are not included. The picture is therefore not a complete one of the physical condition of dependent families, but only of the ambulatory cases. The conditions of the fathers enumerated above indicates the rest of the picture. Among the thousand examined a grand total of 2,748 defacts were discovered, an average of nearly 3 per person.

While 94 per cent of the whole group examined were found to have one or more defects or disabilities, not all were candidates for dispensary care nor even for specific medical care, as some could be relieved by changes in diet or other environmental factors and needed only supervisory nursing. This service could in some instances be provided by special departments of the social organizations in charge.

One significant point is that only 146 or about 10 per cent of the diseases and defects required care in the general medical or pediatric clinics. The great majority needed treatment in special clinics to which they could be referred with precision as a result of the examination.

Certain by-products of the experience were significant. The social workers showed interest and some surprise at the technical details essential to making an accurate physical estimate of a client. The working out of an individual record and plan for each member of a family group stimulated their appreciation of the importance of the personality of the individuals in any family group. They also acquired a sense of security in carrying forward treatment—based on the conviction that important defects had not been neglected.

The experience of examining an entire family at one time interested the physicians profoundly. Slight tendencies assumed significance by repetition. They soon recognized the importance of accurate information on environment, economic situation, dietetic habits, and even personalities as a basis for their prognosis and plan for treatment.

The more definite conclusions reached might be listed as follows:

1. Physical examinations of the clients of family case-work agencies, by defining the extent of existing disease and by detecting defects which later may cause incapacity, supply

Mrs. Barnes Was Supposedly Well

How a widow and three children were served by the general examination given by the Committee on Dispensary Development

MR. BARNES died of tuberculosis two years ago. His widow and three children are dependent upon the United Hebrew Charities for support. Mrs. Barnes is depressed most of the time and is full of vague complaints about herself and the children, so the worker who has the supervision of the family asked to have each member examined to determine the real physical status.

Mrs. Barnes is 42 years old, lacks three inches of being five feet tall, weighs 139 pounds and stands with her shoulders bent and her abdomen protruding. Her chief complaints are weakness, sleeplessness, headaches, pains in arms and legs especially in bad weather, and pain in feet and ankles.

The doctor finds that she has completely fallen arches in both feet which must be very painful. She has dental caries and pyorrhea, enlarged and congested tonsils, and very flabby musculature. She has pediculosis capitis and on her shoulders there is acne.

Adolph, 11 years of age, is very thin and stoop-shouldered. He fainted while the simple tests such as height, weight, temperature, vision, hearing, and haemoglobin were being made. He appears under-developed and does not look as though he gets enough sleep. His mother reports that he talks in his sleep. He has eczema in his left ear, psoriasis on his left elbow, and he has one decayed tooth.

Yetta, 7 years of age, is not as much underweight as Adolph but she is round-shouldered, has an under-nourished appearance, and lacks appetite. She has pediculosis capitis, her left ear is obstructed with wax, her teeth are carious and she has enlarged tonsils.

Hannah, 2 years and 2 months old, is also a case of malnutrition. She has herpes on her chin, pediculosis capitis, and enlarged tonsils.

It is evident that the mother cannot do any active work because of the condition of her feet. The bodily pains especially in bad weather are possibly related to the very bad condition of her teeth and gums.

The children all show marked signs of neglect although the mother is probably doing all that she is physically able to do for them.

It is recommended that the mother be taken immediately to an orthopedic clinic, that the mother, Adolph, and Yetta be taken to a dental clinic, and that Adolph also have treatment for his skin. The diet is to be increased and to include more fats and milk. All the children are to have their heads cleaned up and have more sleep. They all should have country care if possible. After the general condition is improved Yetta and Hannah are to have their throats re-examined to determine whether tonsillectomy is necessary. If after Mrs. Barnes has had her feet treated and has proper shoes and has the necessary dental work done she still has pain in her feet, legs, and arms she should have her throat re-examined to find out whether the tonsils should be removed. When these corrections are made she should be able to take adequate care of her children.

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Economic Incapacity from Physical Causes Among 1000 Clients of Family Case-Work Agencies, Discovered by Examination

	None		Incipient		Temporary		Permanent		Total	
Clients	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Men	3	4	15	19	45	55	19	22	82	100
Women	7	2	37	11	265	78	31	9	340	100
Total Adults	10	2	52	12	310	74	50	12	422	100
Children	44	8	353	61	166	28	15	3	578	100
GRAND TOTAL	54	5	405	40	476	48	65	7	1000	100

the only sound basis for meeting the health and sickness problems of the applicants for assistance.

2. While it takes the time of the case workers to fill in records and take their clients to clinics, it saves their time by avoiding unnecessary and misdirected reference of cases, by helping examinees to understand the importance of treatment, by eliminating guess work as to medical conditions and by supplying a source of conference as the cases progress.

3. The cost of the service is more than compensated by the saving in time for doctors and workers and by the satisfactory results of the work.

4. The service could most economically be rendered in the out-patient department of general hospitals where the recommendations for medical treatment could be carried out with the least exertion, and where there is medical supervision and equipment.

5. The service, at least in the beginning, would need to be a special division of the out-patient department because the examinations should be by appointment, the physician must be specially interested and experienced in the work, and free from the pressure of treatment of the acutely sick.

ANNA MANN RICHARDSON, M. D.

Foundlings Are Keepings

QUESTION: What is the difference between a Protestant and a Catholic?

ANSWER: Market Street.

THAT isn't the answer any longer in St. Louis, but it was perfectly correct, so far as abandoned babies were concerned, before July 1915. Every foundling picked up in the city, if reported to the authorities, was placed in one of three institutions. One was kept by Catholics, one by Protestants, and the third was for colored children. Providence and the police decided where the white baby was to go: if it was found north of Market Street, the police officer followed instructions and delivered it to the Catholic institution; if south, he left the child in Protestant care. If the baby was a Negro, there was no choice to be made. The next day the mayor's office was informed of the arrival of one more baby in the appropriate institution, and the city of St. Louis began at once to pay board for it.

As a public charge the baby usually remained in the foundling home until it was three years of age; it was thereupon transferred to the city institution for dependent children. As the baby's best chance at placement in a foster home for adoption was gone by that time, it was now on its way toward becoming a prize institutionalized child.

In July 1915, after the placing-out department of the Board of Children's Guardians had been in existence two years, and there was first-hand evidence that placement of children in foster homes at board or into free homes for adoption was a success, it was thought safe to venture into the field of placing the city's babies. Forty-four little children were found in the three institutions. Even though his mother's religion had been undetermined each child was found to have been made a Protestant or a Catholic according to the fate which abandoned him either north or south of Market Street. The children who had remained in the institutions for a long period had failed to develop their faculties and the board was confronted with the placement of many abnormal babies.

As the original police report was practically the only record, a fresh investigation of the history of each of the 44 babies was made. During the period from August 1, 1915, to April 1, 1916, it was possible to release 38 of the 44 children. Investigation revealed that many did not belong among the foundlings or abandoned children at all, since they had parents or relatives who had long been able to care for them, but had become accustomed to shifting the responsibility to the city. By the end of the second year, St. Louis found it no longer necessary to appropriate $9,000 a year for the care of foundlings, as the number of abandoned children had been so materially reduced that the expenditure for care could be met from our regular appropriation. Two of the foundling homes became maternity homes and the city institution for dependent children later went out of existence.

Equally enlightening experience resulted from the plan, initiated by the board and the hospital commissioner, of having all foundlings taken to the City Hospital. The chief of police was notified of the new arrangement; the first baby abandoned was promptly taken to the City Hospital and a police report was filed with the Board of Children's Guardians. The case was assigned for investigation to a social worker of the Board of Children's Guardians. When the social service department of the City Hospital was informed of the facts in the report, the social service worker in the maternity ward identified the child immediately. "The baby is Thomas Jenkins, born at the City Hospital on October 3," she reported. "I placed the mother and her baby just two days ago and made definite plans for her; she seemed to want to keep her baby, but some one must have persuaded her to do otherwise." The social worker from the Board of Children's Guardians, accompanied by the worker from the City Hospital, visited addresses which had been furnished by the mother while she was a patient in the hospital. The mother was found to be greatly distressed; her act, she said, had been impulsive and she was anxious to have her baby returned to her. The social service worker from the City Hospital again planned for the mother and her baby and the case continued under her supervision.

Since that first case, many have ended in this way; but there have been others in which it was impossible to find the mother after the social workers at the hospital had identified the baby, and to break through the baffling mystery which traditionally enshrouds the antecedents of a foundling. Even though the mother cannot be found, the identification is important because it gives some fragment at least of social history for the baby. The babies that did not prove to be City Hospital babies have been few indeed.

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Babies retained in the care of the Board of Children's Guardians are first placed in boarding homes, one baby to a foster mother, and as soon as possible transferred to free homes with tentative adoption. The waiting list for babies for adoption is always a long one.

In 1916, eleven foundlings were committed during the year; in 1917, seven were committed; in 1918, eight; in 1919, fourteen; in 1920, twenty-one; in 1921, twenty-seven; in 1922, five; to October first of 1923 there have been three. Instead of being, as formerly, a source of considerable expense, foundlings in St. Louis are now so few in number and so easy to place that they are the least of our problems: constructive social service pays.

EMMA C. PUSCHNER

A Lariat For Opportunity

THE Boston Continuation School authorities, in an effort to determine the reasons why 4,469 boys and 3,112 girls between the ages of 14 and 16 went to work in 1921-1922, conducted a census of boys and girls in attendance during a certain week in May 1922.

The results of this inquiry revealed that of the 2,947 children who replied, 1,652 left because of financial pressure in their homes, 725 gave unsatisfactory school experience as their reason, 392 had a reason which related to the personal feeling of the child or its parent and only 178 left because they had been attracted by a desirable opening in industry or business. Fifty-two per cent of the 1,699 boys and 61.6 per cent of the 1,248 girls had left school because of financial pressure; 8.4 per cent of the boys and 2.9 per cent of the girls left because they saw a good opportunity for them to start to work.

The most significant fact revealed by this census was that *over one-half*—56 per cent of these children—left because of financial pressure in the home. Assuming that the causes for leaving school given by this group were typical for *all* children between 14 and 16 who left school during the entire year, we may reasonably estimate that 2,324 boys and 1,917 girls, or a total of 4,241, would have continued with their education had financial assistance been provided.

The Boston Rotary Club, the English High School, the Girls' High School, the Overseers of the Poor, the Jewish Children's Aid Society, and the Boston Provident Association have a definite policy of granting educational subsidies to children of grammar and high school age. Other agencies giving family relief often enable children to remain in school for longer periods. The Newton Welfare Bureau, the Family Welfare Society of Boston, the Brookline Friendly Society and the Cambridge Welfare Society reported that their family relief policies had often kept children in school. In addition to these agencies, the High School of Practical Arts has a fund raised by students and teachers through candy sales, plays or other activities, which is distributed to needy students for carfares, lunches, clothes, and other minor needs. In 1922 the total amount of aid to six pupils was but $28.80. Though this fund, like a somewhat similar one of the English High School, may keep a child in school by paying an oculist or a dentist bill, it is, like those of the welfare agencies, more in the nature of general relief than of a definite educational subsidy. The approximate amount available in 1922, then, was $36,940 administered by the six agencies granting definite educational subsidies.

While the general policies of these agencies are liberal—the Jewish Society even not barring Gentile applicants who can get no other aid—all of them require good character and good scholarship except the Overseers, who administer a fund under provisions of a will which limits assistance to "average students" who are orphans or half orphans under 14 years of age. Of the others, all but the Provident Association are restricted to high school children, the Rotary and English High School to boys of that age, the Girls' High School to girls, and the Jewish Children's Aid to those of either sex. The Provident Association has no age limit, and makes grants to both boys and girls.

All of the subsidized children are supervised in the disbursement of the funds, either through school or family visitors provided by the organizations. Only the Girls' High School and the English High School funds are disbursed directly to the student. The payments in other cases are made to the child's parent, guardian or creditor. Each agency continues assistance only during the period of need, and as long as the child's scholarship remains high.

Mentally and physically handicapped children are eligible for aid from only three of the agencies, the Jewish Children's Aid, the Girls' High School, and the Boston Provident Association. Such aid is granted to comparatively few children and is very decidedly an exception to the general policy of the associations.

Assistance from two of the six funds is granted as loans. Although promissory notes are taken from the borrowers, collection is not strictly enforced. The general feeling on this question is that minors should not have future earning capacity mortgaged for an elementary education.

Amount and Sources of Funds Available in Boston for Children's Educational Subsidies, 1922.

Agency Sources of Funds	Approximate Yearly Grant	Number Aided	Nature of Grant	Average per Capita
Total	$36,940	147		$251
Boston Rotary Club				
Members' voluntary contributions	25,000	79	loan	316
English High School				
Voluntary contributions	220	3	gift	73
Boston Provident				
Endowment, contributions, special drives..	2,500	12	gift	208
Overseers of Poor				
Endowment of John Boylston	6,720	33	gift	203
Girls' High School				
Voluntary contributions from teachers and alumni	500	5	loan	100
Jewish Children's Aid Society				
Voluntary contributions, special drives, dues, etc.	2,000	15	gift	133

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The accompanying table presents some details of funds available in Boston. Lack of data prevents the determination of anything but an average per capita grant; but it is known that *actual* grants range from $40 to $400 per capita per year, depending on the funds available and the need of the individual, and may be granted for only a month or two, or be continued for a series of three, and possibly four years.

It is noteworthy that the Rotary Club contributes nearly three-fourths of the total funds available. This organization has found here a field which it considers worthy of its interest and help, and is trying to establish "the great idea"—as it is called—on a comprehensive and effective scale.

But with all the efforts of these half dozen agencies, only 147 children were aided in one year, whereas over 4,000 left school because of a lack of resources to carry them through the sixteenth year. Obviously more funds are needed; and they should be administered with the assistance of some centralized agency in touch with *all* children who leave school because of a lack of economic resources. The Working Certificate Office and the Vocational Guidance Bureau would be the logical existing agencies to serve as a clearing house of information for organizations with funds to contribute to this purpose.

LOUISE A. SCHLICHTING

What About the Half Million?

WHEN special needs—such as that outlined in the preceding article—and unspent accumulations of capital left behind by generous people now long dead are found side by side in the same city, the problem of the dead hand is a disheartening one. The Boston Finance Commission, some months ago, retained E. Frances O'Neill, formerly general secretary of the Providence Society for Organizing Charities, with a staff of assistants, to study the work of the Overseers of the Public Welfare. The findings of these investigators in connection with public bequests are pertinent:

As early as 1701 and as recently as 1901, charitably inclined persons have provided in their will for the poor and unfortunate in the City of Boston. There are now seventeen of these funds, with accumulated income, amounting to about $1,000,000, the annual income from the whole amounting to about $40,000. The Overseers of the Public Welfare have the custody of these funds and the duty of distributing the income as directed by the testators.

As a result of a theory adopted by the overseers long ago and continued to the present day, these trust funds are distributed in semiannual lump sums, for the most part to persons who would probably not apply for aid from the city but who are glad to accept aid from the income of such bequests. The overseers endeavor to distribute the income from these trust funds to such persons, but they are not numerous enough to exhaust the entire income. As a result the income from these trust funds has accumulated to an amount nearly as great as the trust funds.

While the commission does not criticise the selections made in accordance with this theory, it believes that when those selected in the manner described are not sufficient in number to make use of the entire income from the trust funds, the balance of the income should be dispensed by the overseers to other persons who are eligible under the provisions of the trust. In most cases these provisions are broad enough to permit the overseers expend annually the entire income. The income from these trusts has been accumulated for many years, until it now amounts to $428,593.38. In some cases the accumulated income exceeds the original bequest. It is clear that the overseers have no right to permit the accumulation of income from these trust funds when there are persons eligible to receive it. To an appreciable extent annually the expenditures of the overseers from the public treasury would be decreased if the entire income from these trust funds was expended.

The Finance Commission at this time does not recommend the expenditure of accumulated income, but believes that no further accumulation of income should be allowed when such income can be legally distributed, and that all income from trust funds and from income already accumulated should be distributed annually.

It will be noted that the last bequest of this sort noted by the investigators was dated in 1901. In 1915 the Permanent Charity Fund of Boston was organized, and among all the community trusts or foundations this has now the largest actual capital and present income. Its trustees are spending well over a quarter of a million dollars a year.

This organization and others of its kind, now operating or ready to operate in many cities, offer a way whereby testators of the present may avoid the possibility that their bequests for public uses will become obsolete. In the meantime, nearly half a million dollars in Boston lies idle.

HOW TO ELIMINATE the dishonest lawyer is the subject of an article by H. C. Horack of the University of Iowa in a recent number of the Iowa Law Bulletin. After explaining the reasons for the almost total failure of the present method by which responsibility for initiating disbarment proceedings devolves upon a committee of the bar association, Mr. Horack suggests that this duty should be assigned to the office of the attorney-general of the state. As head of the Department of Justice and as an official somewhat removed from local influence, the attorney-general could do what no lawyer in private practice can undertake without great hazard to himself. The state supreme court is the preferred tribunal before which these cases should come.

THE MISSOURI SCHOOL of Social Economy was threatened with extinction last winter when the legislature neglected to make a direct appropriation for the continuation of the work of the school. The legislature had without any warning whatsoever begun to cut off extension work carried on by the university outside of Columbia, Missouri. However, a way was found of continuing the school as a part of the university and as a consequence there is no general change in the plans of the school. It will continue this coming year to give both the regular course in social service and to conduct the course in public health nursing. In fact the school is expanding its work so as to give a certain amount of training in the field of psychiatric and medical social service work. It also will be enabled to give a half year's course in recreation and neighborhood work. In this field it will be assisted by the Division of Parks and Recreation of the Department of Public Welfare. The school has been enabled to expand its opportunity for training of public health nurses and will offer a larger and broader course than before. In addition to an emergency course of four months, a full year's work in public health nursing will now be given. By means of a happy arrangement with the Public Health Training Center it has become possible to provide field work in a selected district and under especially favorable conditions for teaching purposes. The expression of sentiment in St. Louis afer the action of the legislature has greatly encouraged the friends of training for social work. An advisory committee composed of St. Louis citizens has been appointed by the state university so that the interests of raining may be better safeguarded in the future.

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COMMUNITIES

A Priority Scale for Social Work

To answer fully the question which Mr. Haynes tackles here would take an encyclopedist, a cosmic philosopher and a super-diplomat, working together as closely as three Siamese twins. Mr. Haynes is merely one of the most thoughtful of the people who deal with the problems of community effort through the medium of the city-wide federation. What he offers here is a sort of rule-of-thumb procedure. Perhaps your thumb works differently: if so, write and tell The Survey how you would answer the question "Which cause comes first?"

WHEN many kinds of social work are clamoring at the same time for support, which comes first? Which is of the most worth? It would seem foolhardy to answer this question except for the fact that in scores of centrally financed or community chest cities, this question has to be answered by budget committees, capital account committees, and others who are responsible for the distribution of funds. Hence I am suggestings six factors which should be considered in determining the relative importance or urgency of different kinds of social work, or different specific social work projects in a given city at a given time.

These suggestions do not presume to cover all of the factors that are to be taken into account. Consideration of these will doubtless elicit other suggestions. Furthermore, it is evident that no decision can be made in the light of a single factor without bearing in mind the other factors as well.

1. *Relative size of group of people to be helped by the different social work activities in consideration.* Other things being equal, an agency reaching a thousand people is more worthy of support than an agency reaching a hundred people. Needless to say, other things never are equal, but from the standpoint of the community, the number of people in need who are helped by a given social work project has to be considered.

2. *The relative future service to the community of the group helped by the different social work activities.* For instance, an institution for the young which handles a hundred children is benefiting a group which will give a larger future service to the community than an institution which takes care of a hundred old people. As an old teacher once said, "Anybody who works with children works on the long arm of the lever." Children's institutions, playgrounds, the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts and similar organizations all have a relatively high value because of the future service of the group which they help.

3. *The relative future expense to the community, if the different groups helped by the different social work projects are not cared for.* For instance, the number of those handicapped by being hard of hearing may be greater than the number of those handicapped by blindness, but the hard of hearing may be better able to take care of themselves, so that if the blind are not cared for the future expense to the community will be greater than if the hard of hearing are not cared for. Probably the most striking examples of the shadow of future expense to the community are to be found in the field of care or the failure of care for the feeble-minded and mentally subnormal of other grades. This regard for the future expense to the community if work is not done is the basis of support of all preventive agencies. The great difficulty is to learn whether "preventive" social work really prevents, or whether we are gaily gambling in futures.

4. *The relative influence on the group helped of the service rendered by different social work activities.* Medical treatment, on which life depends, is, for example, more urgent than the care of cultural values. If a man has to have an operation for appendicitis it is more important that a place be provided where this operation can be performed with a fair chance of success than that the man should have a chance to enjoy a concert. On the other hand, character building activities are more urgent in the priority scale than the furnishing of certain refinements of physical care, because on habits of character depend future uses of opportunity and future independence of need of care from the community.

The foregoing suggestions are based on certain fundamental considerations. The two suggestions which are to follow are based on certain immediate and changing considerations.

5. *The relative chances of getting the financing of a given social work activity on other than a philanthropic basis, i. e., on taxation or on a self-supporting cooperative basis or even on a commercial basis.* In many cities, private philanthropy is being choked by certain routine activities which should be carried by the city, the schools or the county. Not only is this unjust, because part of the community is subjected to an additional, voluntary tax to make up for the delinquencies of what should be carried by a tax upon all, but this overloading of philanthropic agencies with routine activities is preventing them from performing the service to the community in

SOCIAL FINANCE

Next month Mr. Norton resumes his discussion of The Bill for Benevolence, taking up the first of four ways to pay the bill, namely,

THE VOLUNTARY GIFT

Later, Robert W. Kelso will probe into a puzzling and little-known situation—the actual present-day trend in philanthropic giving in an old city where the charity tradition runs deep—an article answering the question

HOW FARES BOSTON?

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experiment, standard-raising and detection of preventive methods, which is frequently the unique contribution of private philanthropy. All such standard-raising, prevention-detecting work which can be done on public funds is most welcome, but practical experience has shown that usually public agencies have to depend on private agencies for the initial development of such activities. It is not until an activity has been pretty well demonstrated as worth while to all of the people that its general support through taxation is possible.

In the field of recreation the foreign-born have furnished some very enlightening illustrations of what can be done on a cooperative self-support basis. Whether medical and hospital service on this basis is possible, for those above the mere subsistence line but with small incomes, has become—with the increased demand for medical service growing out of the emphasis on prevention—one of the major problems of social work. Ten years ago vacation savings associations were important philanthropies. Now the thrift promotion methods of most of our banks and trust companies make such efforts on a philanthropic basis unnecessary.

If a piece of social work, then, stands a fair chance of being supported on other than philanthropic funds it should not be put as high up in the scale of relative urgency as an activity which is also needed, as judged by the first four factors, but which does not stand as good a chance of support by other methods.

6. *The relative efficiency of use of the facilities provided for different social work activities.* An agency may be very much needed, but its efficiency may be so poor that the community is not justified in providing for formal expansion, nor in some cases for continuing the work, until there has been a thorough house-cleaning. Our chief care here must be to see that efficiency is judged by effectiveness in reaching the objects of that particular piece of social work and not by some shallow analogy with a business which has other objections.

ROWLAND HAYNES

Studying Religion at Work

IN no field is there a greater diversity of tenaciously held opinion than in that of organized religion. For three years the Committee on Social and Religious Surveys—an agency entirely without denominational or ecclesiastical affiliations—has been seeking to examine in turn the bases of some commonly held opinions, and to demonstrate their accuracy or the reverse. Its aim is to combine scientific methods of study with the religious motive, and hence it undertakes only projects dealing with conditions in the life of society that in important ways affect or are affected by organized religion. Broadly speaking, it has defined its job as including any project of investigation which seeks fundamental principles, undiscovered facts, or new or improved methods of social and religious value, provided the project can be brought within the field of a scientific survey or of scientific research.

The hope of the committee, which has now changed its name to the Institute of Social and Religious Research, is that it will be able gradually to build up a body of incontrovertible facts which will serve all churches alike—especially all Protestant churches—as a basis for formulating programs of action. The nature and scope of the work will

Woodcut by J. J. Lankes

remain unchanged, and the institute will carry to completion the unfinished projects of the committee as well as initiating new studies. The personnel of the governing body is also unchanged: John R. Mott is chairman, Ernest D. Burton, Raymond B. Fosdick, James L. Barton, W. H. P. Faunce and Kenyon L. Butterfield are the directors; Galen M. Fisher is executive secretary.

Whenever a survey or research undertaking clears the way for a program of community action, the institute stands ready to cooperate with other interested organizations in an effort to work out such a program. In some instances, too, it cooperates with interested groups in furthering the study itself. For example, a survey of Orientals on the Pacific Coast is now being made on this basis, representative leaders in the coast states and British Columbia having asked the institute's help. Dr. Robert E. Park of the University of Chicago has been called in as the research director of this study. The Committee of Reference and Counsel and the Student Volunteer Movement are sharing with the institute the task of preparing a World Missionary Atlas, now nearing completion.

But the institute usually works independently in its surveys and research. Thus far its studies have been concerned chiefly with phases of rural religious life, of religious education, and of the problem of the city church. Of its eighteen projects, completed or under way, five were begun by the Interchurch World Movement and left incomplete at the time of its dissolution.

One of these was the Indiana Survey of Religious Education, of which Walter S. Athearn, dean of the School of Religious Education and Social Service in Boston University, was the director. The objectives were to gather a body of vital, comparable facts that would guide in building national, state and denominational programs of religious education; to develop a body of standardized technique, norms, tests, standards, as well as to provide a new and better method of measuring and directing the processes of

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religious education; and to develop standardized methods for guiding local churches and communities in surveying conditions, building programs, testing results and determining budgets.

The first volume of the report, The Religious Education of Protestants in an American Commonwealth [briefly reviewed on p. 353] a book of nearly six hundred pages containing factual data, conclusions and recommendations, was recently published through the George H. Doran Company, and the institute has in the press the two additional volumes required to present the rest of the report.

The other projects taken over incomplete from the Interchurch were a study of social, economic and religious conditions in the 161 reservations and among many scattered bands of Indians in the United States, which has been completed and published as The Red Man in the United States; intensive regional surveys of town and country churches in twenty-five representative counties, made under the direction of Edmund de S. Brunner; a social and religious survey of St. Louis; and a study of the education of Protestant ministers based on a survey of 160 theological seminaries in the United States and Canada, with Robert L. Kelly as the director.

Closely related to the regional town and country surveys are church and community surveys in three counties, Salem in New Jersey, Pend Oreille in Washington and Sedgwick in Kansas, all made under Mr. Brunner's direction. The reports of these last, together with the seven separate original survey reports and a summary volume, were published by the committee, while a final volume containing graphic and statistical material, soon to be put out by the institute, will complete a twelve-volume series.

Along quite different lines was a study, planned and carried out under Mr. Brunner's direction, of the factors of success of certain concededly successful country churches. Two volumes were published—Churches of Distinction in Town and Country and Tested Methods in Town and Country Churches. The first tells in text and illustration the life-stories of fourteen of the forty most successful rural churches in the United States selected by denominational officials for the purpose of the study. In the second volume, intended as a textbook of effective rural ministry, the methods employed in the forty churches are treated topically.

An example of the other extreme, so far as method is concerned, is furnished by a comparative study of rural churches made by C. Luther Fry. This investigation, which will be ready for publication early in the new year, is an attempt to discover some of the tendencies or "laws" that govern the rural Protestant churches. The study first attempts to develop a new yardstick for measuring churches. Instead of comparing them on the basis of money or membership, which have been the comparative standards generally employed in the past, the investigation builds up a new unit of measurement based upon contributions of *time* to the church. The results of the study indicate that in certain important respects this is a more accurate basis of comparison than are money or membership figures. The study then aims, contrasting different groups of churches, to discover some of the tendencies that operate in the rural church field.

The institute is also engaged in two other studies in the rural field. One, under the direction of H. Paul Douglass, is concerned with the interrelations of various non-ecclesiastical religious agencies; while the other, directed by Mr. Brunner, is a survey of a number of villages in their social-religious aspects; in this the Department of Agriculture is cooperating.

In the city field, Mr. Douglass is making a statistical study of a brief schedule obtained for 1,000 churches in cities of more than 100,000 population, as a first step toward a national generalization about the city church in its historic evolution, present organization and program and significant trends. A survey of socio-religious conditions in Springfield, Mass., was recently concluded under Mr. Douglass' direction.

Extending its work in the study of religious education, the institute has undertaken at the request of religious leaders, colored and white, a survey of Negro theological seminaries and religious training schools. Mr. Kelly and Prof. H. H. Long are the directors of this project. An independent study, under the direction of Prof. Charles E. Rugh, is also being made of both the official and the volunteer religious activities and influences affecting students in the colleges and universities in the United States, and of the reaction of students to these activities and influences.

STANLEY WENT

They See It in the Paper

THE newspapers developed long ago a technique of making friends with special groups of readers and pari passu making money from special groups of advertisers. Every city daily has its dramatic section, with reviews and theatre advertising; its book section with book copy and publishers' announcements; its real estate gossip and advertisements; its financial pages with market quotations alongside

SATURDAY MORNING IN THE BOSTON HERALD

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the space bought by banks and brokers; even its church news and notices. But the Boston Herald is the first large newspaper to apply the same formula to the cultivation of the folks in town who are interested—or who may be led to become so—in social welfare.

On the other side of the fence, the social agencies by and large have made little effort to explore the possibilities of paid newspaper advertising. Some of the great national drives, most of the community chests, and a scattered few among individual agencies, have been represented in large-space campaigns, but it remained for the Boston Council of Social Agencies to promote deliberately the simultaneous advertising of many local philanthropic projects.

These converging motives—the desire of the newspaper to contribute to the general good, and to secure the good-will of an influential group of readers, and the desire of the agencies, in council, to get their work better known to a wider public—have combined to produce the weekly Social Welfare page of the Saturday morning Herald, a sample of which is here shown in miniature. The Herald offers to any social agency in Boston the privilege of buying advertising space in this issue at half commercial rates. It offers the Council of Social Agencies the free use—without editorial rewriting—of a box two columns wide and six inches deep, which the council is using to drive home in informal "talks" a series of fundamental ideas, such as the significance of mental hygiene, the importance of good housing in preventing disease, and the real meaning of Americanization. The Herald agrees further to carry on the same page a reasonable amount of reading copy about the work of individual agencies or fresh developments in Boston social work generally.

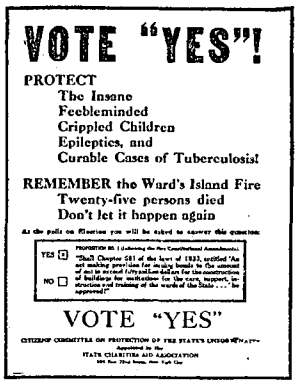
The council acts as a sort of informal shepherd for the social agencies which participate in this agreement, urging them to make a fair trial of the plan, but leaving the actual purchase and use of space entirely to the individual organization. It does ask that those which are members of the council indicate that fact in their advertisements. This request, which has been very generally followed, tends naturally to set up a line of demarcation between the agencies which meet the council's standards and those which do not and thus contributes directly to the education of the public. Incidentally the use made of advertising space in recent issues suggests that few agencies have as yet learned how to advertise: most of the copy is conventional and typographically undistinguished.

Robert W. Kelso, executive secretary of the council, who suggested the plan, is frank in saying that it is still in an experimental stage, but adds:

> Slowly and surely we are landing the principle that social agencies should approach the public jointly on a basis of intelligent interpretation of the field of work. If the public once understands social work the problem of its support is reasonably well solved, and the necessity for high efficiency and careful thinking toward a united program is established.
>
> The page as it now stands is the first stage in our development. The next stage will be the elimination of competitive advertising. We do not mean that the sympathetic appeal shall be given up. It cannot be. It should not be if it could. I mean that agencies working in the same field in the same city should not be pushing and tugging and pulling at each other like little boys scrambling for a cent. They should present their case in sufficiently dignified ways so far as their individual identity is concerned and should act together as a profession of social service, making an earnest and intelligent appeal to the reason as well as to the heart of the public.

The generosity of the Herald and the initiative of the council are producing an experiment which—even if it never gets to the devoutly-to-be-wished second stage for which Mr. Kelso hopes— should add much to our knowledge of how to bring the public into effective contact with organized social work.

How the Facts Did It


VOTE "YES"!

PROTECT
The Insane
Feebleminded
Crippled Children
Epileptics, and
Curable Cases of Tuberculosis!

REMEMBER the Ward's Island Fire
Twenty-five persons died
Don't let it happen again

VOTE "YES"

"NOT the ghost of a chance," said seasoned politicians when the New York state legislature passed a bill putting up to the voters a $50,000,000 bond issue to provide new buildings for the insane, feeble-minded, crippled children, and other wards of the state. Money was hard enough to get for anything; with a bonus proposition on the ballot was it likely that voters were going to be persuaded to vote a huge sum for so dreary and little understood a purpose as state institutions, where individually they stood to gain little or nothing? In the creed of the ordinary voter, where money is involved, in case of doubt, vote *no*.

Eight weeks of hard work, and a little more than $14,000 sold proposition No. 1 to the voters of New York state by a majority which probably will reach 800,000 when all the returns are in. Overcrowding and the fire hazards of New York state institutions have long been a crying shame to the people who knew about them. A disastrous fire last winter, which cost the lives of twenty-five patients and keepers at Ward's Island, gave an emotional leverage for putting an end to the situation. A few days after the fire Governor Smith sent a message to the legislature, reciting the facts; the legislature passed the bill, putting the proposition of the bond issue before the voters. At last the solution was in sight, if only the voters could be educated to realize this elementary duty of the state towards the most helpless of her citizens, and so to vote away their own money to fulfil it. The task of education was gallantly assumed by the State Charities Aid Association, which has made the proper care of the insane one of its concerns for many years. The success of its Citizens' Committee is a real landmark in the advance of social work—educating the public mind, conscience, and pocketbook to a sense of its social responsibilities.

The committee started its active work about the middle of September, acting on the creed of an editor of a successful magazine, who declares that most campaigns overestimate the information and under-estimate the good-will and the intelligence of the people they are trying to convert. The issue was clear-cut and non-partisan; the state chairmen of both parties endorsed it. It could stand on its merits. The campaign relied on fact, facts, and more facts.

These facts were presented in printed form in the ways which have proven effective in many campaigns. Marshalled in considerable detail, they were assembled in a handbook of 115 pages, too expensive for general distribution, since it cost about 21 cents a copy. Five thousand copies of the handbook supplied the necessary ammunition for speakers,

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editors, and the two hundred members of the committee throughout the state. Leaflets which emphasized "you" to the voter—his responsibility to right conditions which could be righted in no other way—were distributed by the hundred thousand—more than half a million in all of three different kinds. About 75,000 posters were sent out; by arrangement with transit companies and their advertising agents they were carried free in the subways, street-cars, elevated lines, buses and ferries of New York City, and trolley-cars of upstate cities; Boy Scouts tacked them up on telegraph poles near polling places in Brooklyn, Queens, and up-state, and one of the life insurance companies sent out literature and posters through its nurses and agents. General news releases went daily or oftener to the newspapers of the state, and special releases to special groups. Each morning's mail brought back a grist of from fifty to two hundred clippings. A column of essential facts supplied in plate form to 472 weekly newspapers and in mats to 61 dailies and weeklies met with extraordinary response.

"Whether one read his newspaper, or took a ride in the subway, or opened his mail, the Bond Issue was there. The only place I didn't find it was when I took my bottle of milk in the morning from the doorstep," wrote Dr. Frankwood Williams, director of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, congratulating the committee on the vote.

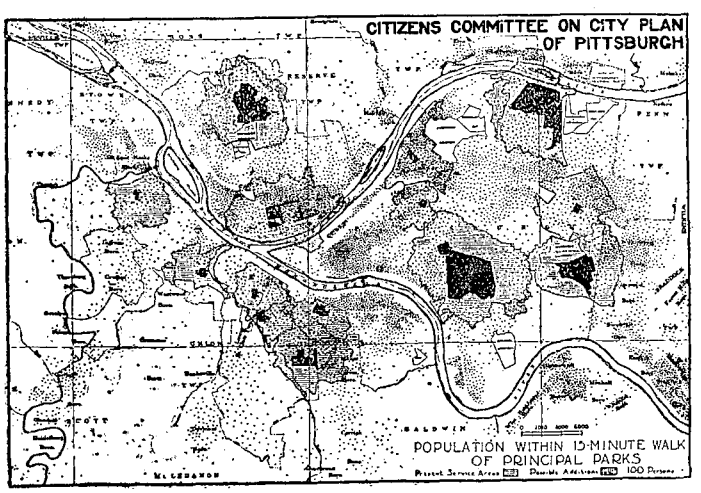
But no amount of telling by strangers has the effect of the recommendation of a friend, and the committee believes that its best and most lasting work was done with people who undertook to educate their own communities. At the very onset it made a drive on the heads of state organizations. Twenty of them—the Legion, Knights of Columbus, Masons, Elks, Women Voters, Chambers of Commerce, Daughters of the American Revolution, Federal Council of Churches, and so on through every hue and stripe of opinion, agreed with the committee either before or after argument that here was a really non-partisan social issue, worthy of their active support. They were urged to commit the central organization to the idea and to write to the branches, asking that they obtain a speaker to tell them in detail about it (the committee ran a speakers' bureau), to obtain and give out literature, and to pass resolutions and send them to the newspapers and ask their members and friends to vote "yes." Some did all, some only part, of these things. The list of groups who reported that they had passed resolutions covers ten typewritten pages. It is a cross-section of the organized life of the community, from automobile club to ladies' missionary society, from county medical association or the health officer to the chamber of commerce. With many times the funds available the committee could not have reached these people as quickly and effectively as could their own officers.

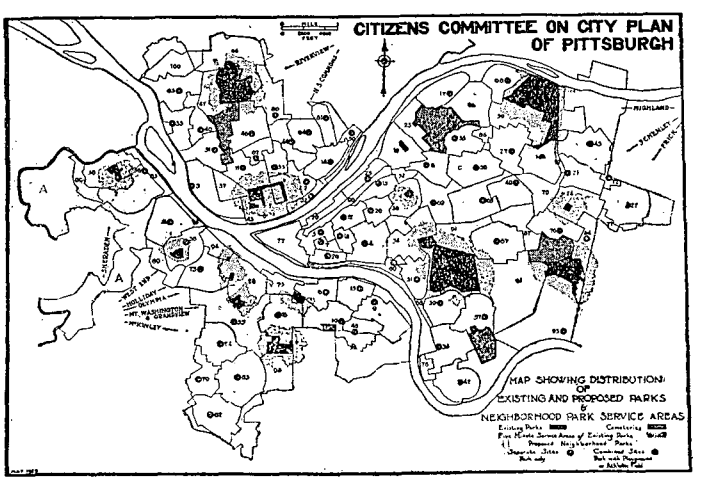
The committee feels, moreover, that the sense of responsibility which stimulated them to making this effort was not exhausted in putting the cross in the little square. The next time it is necessary to go to the state with a social issue there will be a larger body of people who will not automatically turn a deaf ear to any plan which involves public money and effort. M. R.

THE NEW YORK COMMUNITY TRUST, The Survey ventured to remark in the issue for November 15, has entrusted the distribution of its income to a committee on which very young men and women are not as numerous as one might expect, taking account of the fact that its funds will increase slowly and a committee might well grow up with the trust. From the director of the trust there comes, in response, a note which, reluctantly, he has allowed us to quote: "The fact that

A WORKING PATTERN OF PARKS AND PLAY GROUNDS TO FIT THE POPULATION OF PITTSBURGH

To the left is a "service map" of existing parks in Pittsburgh. Each dot represents 100 persons. The shaded area around each of the parks (solid black) is the district from any part of which it is possible to reach the park in 15 minutes walk—allowing for detours and (an important item in Pittsburgh) necessary hill-climbing. The dots outside the shaded areas evidently represent people who must walk more than a quarter of an hour—in some cases much more—to reach the larger existing parks. To the right is a map which shows how the Citizens Committee on City Plan hopes to distribute a full hundred new neighborhood parks and playgrounds, scattered so thoroughly over the city that everybody will be within easy walking distance (11 or 12 minutes for an adult) from an open space. These little breathing spots vary from one to eight acres in size; many of them are close to a school building, and the city already owns the land for a considerable number of them. With 2.48 acres of park space per 1000 people, Pittsburgh is already better off than New York, Chicago, Detroit, Cleveland and Buffalo, but suffers by comparison with Minneapolis (10.56 acres per 1000 people), Kansas City, Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, St. Louis, Boston or Baltimore. Maps and data from the report on parks recently published by the Citizens Committee, reviewed November 15, 1923 (p. 216).





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some members of the distribution committee are of mature age need not necessarily stamp them, I am sure, as ultra-conservative. The reason for selecting members of this committee who have attained their full growth may be by way of atonement for having chosen a director of the trust who is scandalously far below thirty!" Could a happier balance be asked for?

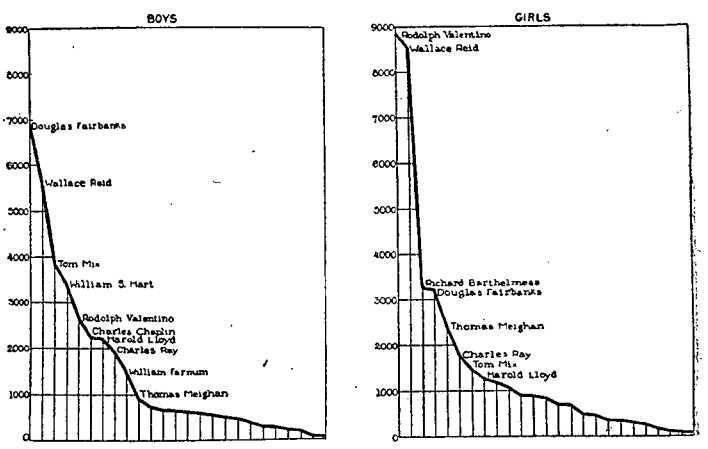
"THE LION has gone up somewhere," cried Jim. "Look sharp." . . . "Only through discipline," says Mr. Haughton. . . . "He shall suffer for this," declared Gonzales evenly "Outside, you dog." . . . In a perfect arc the pigskin sailed down the field and into his waiting arms . . . "I mean you couldn't pay me to become a liar for you" . . . Since whatever success I have attained (says Douglas Fairbanks) has been due to my efforts to retain my enthusiasm . . . . . No. 1, in the picture, means "this is the trail". . . If anybody supposed that the "new" Boys' Life, the magazine published by the Boy Scouts of America, was going to become highbrow or priggish because the organization had received a $100,000 gift to supply wholesome reading for youngsters, let him sample the magazine for November A juvenile Saturday Evening Post in appearance and a whale for excitement, the magazine bids fair to take its place alongside the commercially successful publishing enterprises.

AMERICAN library methods are being carried to France. Last summer a library course held at the American Library in Paris under the auspices of the American Committee for Devastated France reached nearly 50 French and Belgian libraries. This fall a grant of $50,000 has been made by the same committee to the American Library Association, to be used in training European librarians at both summer and winter courses to be given for two years in Paris.

CHICAGO, which helped mightily to blaze the way for American interest in city planning and particularly the city center, has now begun to concern itself earnestly with what Dwight H. Perkins dubs the "city circumference." The Survey has already reported the launching of an effort to provide for Chicago a regional plan comparable in scope to the plan on which a New York committee affiliated with the Russell Sage Foundation is now working. That effort has reached the stage of formal organization: the Chicago Regional Association began its career early in November. Frederic A. Delano, now chairman of the Committee on Plan of New York and its Environs, brought fresh greeting from the New York planners, who owe much to the impetus of Chicago planning. Dwight T. Perkins was elected president of the association; vice-presidents are to be chosen for four Illinois counties and one in Indiana, and there was talk of pushing the field of operations clear out to Milwaukee, 85 miles away.

SMITH COLLEGE has a community chest of its own. It has for several years been the custom for the Student Government to give the girls in residence at the college the opportunity to subscribe simultaneously for all the college activities which sought general support, and for some of the philanthropies to which they were in the habit of contributing annually. But the growing student body proved too attractive a target for a host of special appeals, and speaker after speaker for this and that cause begged money from the chapel platform. Like the tired business man, the students looked for a better way, and devised a college community chest. The committee which, in the best style, made a preliminary study and presented its remommendations, suggested that an average of $12.50 per girl would enable the college to continue giving on the same basis as in the past. A budget of $25,000 was drawn up to include ten special student philanthropies—such as the Louvain University Library and the Student Friendship Fund, and to provide a reserve for future distribution to other causes. The reserve will be appropriated at the discretion of a committee made up of the president of the college and one representative of each class. Pledges amounting to $21,750 have been received; the amount will be brought up to $25,000 by the freshman class. How thankful some other campaign managers would be for a freshman class!

THE ATTITUDE of high school students toward motion pictures has been studied forwards, backwards and criss-cross by Clarence Arthur Perry for the National Committee for Better Films, affiliated with the National Board of Review. A printed questionnaire was circulated in about 200 schools as an English exercise; replies from 37,505 were tabulated and analyzed. The boys had attended the movies just short of five times apiece, on an average, during a given four-week period; the girls averaged 4.2 times. The students were asked to name their favorite actor and actress; boys and girls alike voted for Mary Pickford, Norma Talmadge, Constance Talmadge and Gloria Swanson, in that order, among the actresses, but Douglas Fairbanks headed the boys' list of actors while Rodolph Valentino stood first in the girls' affection. As the diagrams show, Mary Pickford was so far first in the boys' liking that there almost wasn't any second. "The facts seem to indicate," it is remarked, "that Mary Pickford, far more than the other women, embodies an ideal which has a universal appeal to the male of the teen-age." There is food for thought in the vote for the best picture the student had ever seen: the girls' choice fell on Way Down East, The Four Horsemen, The Sheik, and Over the Hill in that order; the boys put The Four Horsemen first and put The Birth of a Nation, The Three Musketeers, and Over the Hill after it. Both boys and girls disliked most the pictures with a sad ending, but there were many "spontaneous criticisms" of slapstick or vulgar films, those which were not true to life, mushy, artistically bad, immoral, or which emphasized murder, shooting and brutality. A little girl in Salem objected to one picture because, she said, "When I see where some one does not need to go to school to manage to make a fairly good living, it makes me feel as if school were an unnecessary institution." Mr. Perry's conclusions are that "1. Attendance of high school students at the movies is not excessive. 2. The preferences of high school students as to screen performers



From a report published by the National Board of Review

THEIR "FAVORITE" MOVIE ACTOR

and particular photoplays are on the whole intelligent and wholesome. 3. The classes of photoplays liked reveal natural and healthful tastes. 4. The educational film has not begun to realize its possibilities. 5. The photoplay notably stimulates the reading of books. 6. The current motion picture has not carried high school pupils off their feet—indeed, it apparently must show a considerable advance in art, taste, and wholesomeness before it can command their unqualified appreciation and support." But the producer who cares for none of these things can always fall back on the adult public!!

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INDUSTRY

Eat More Wheat

The price of bread has always been used as a barometer of prosperity. Laws have tried to limit it when it soared too high, and like the wages of women without the protection of law, there is no point below which it cannot be reduced. What determines the price of bread? The cost of raising wheat or its market price? The wages of the men who mill it and bake it and sell it? The freight rates? Or is it simply determined by the effective demand, and sold for all the traffic will bear? What is the combination of factors that determines whether the wheat-eating races of the world shall have too little or enough? Some of the figures in this article are from 40 years back—some are of the immediate present—and since the price of bread, unlike the price of silk or of sealing wax, is basic to the health and happiness of the race, they are not mere statistics but signs of human advance or retreat.

AMERICAN wheat brings a higher price in England than in America; if it did not bring a higher price, it could not be exported. Between the American farm and the English mill are the costs of handling and transportation and the profits of business.

Bread from American wheat sells for about half as much in England as in America. There is some labor cost between the miller's wheat and the consumer's loaf of bread; the labor cost in the two nations is about the same. There are also the profits of business; they are greater in America, enough greater to double the price of bread that is made from cheaper wheat.

The Eat More Wheat drive stresses the fact that if the average American should eat a little more bread at every meal, one slice it is said, the American demand for wheat would equal the crop and there would be no need to export. The price of wheat on American farms would not be determined then by what Europe pays competitive solicitors for its patronage, with costs and profits of export to Europe deducted; the price would be determined in America, to which competitors would have to send their wheat, paying all expenses. The American tariff on wheat, now of political significance only, might then be helpful to farmers, if it were retained under such circumstances and if advantages were overlooked as a source of business profits.

As matters now stand, Americans seem unlikely to respond effectively to the advertising that is the reliance of the drive, however much the farmer might be assisted by general consumption of additional slices of bread in his behalf. An element in the population cannot eat more; those who could eat more are prevented by the price. The living wage is not universal yet; many do not receive it. Unemployment cuts down the home market for farm products; reducing wages cuts it down. When American workmen are paid less, their families eat less; if they were paid more, their families would eat more. Wages make the farmers' home market; the American demand for farm products increases or decreases as wages rise or fall.

If bread might be sold, as it is in England, for about half as much as it now costs in America, advertising would be unnecessary. More bread would be eaten, the American demand for wheat would equal the crop, and Americans would gain in vitality, stature and number. "Increase of population," Professor Teggart says, "follows upon increased production of food. . . . The initial point for consideration . . . is not so much the rise and fall of numbers as the increase and decrease of the food supply." Inaccessible food is not a supply. The advertising of the Eat More Wheat drive is paid for by business; it has not suggested the possibility of reducing the price of bread.

Reducing the wages of workmen who change wheat into bread would probably not affect the price of bread at all. In controlled business, prices are based not on costs but on what the traffic will bear. Reducing wages might mean larger profits, not cheaper bread; and it would reduce the demand for wheat.

Reducing the price of wheat means likewise not cheaper bread but larger profits. The cheaper bread of England is not made from cheaper wheat. English farmers have a better market than American farmers and sell their wheat at a higher price; but they cannot pay current wages for labor and cannot make current wages by their own labor. They find wheat-growing unprofitable and are turning plowland to grass. In America, where wheat brings a lower price, wheat-growing is more unprofitable than in England. The cost of bread in America cannot be reduced by lowering the price of wheat; wheat now is grown only in the hope that the price will be higher. A price permanently lower would mean no wheat; if the price does not increase, the result necessarily will be the same.

IF wheat is to be grown in America, the price must be higher. Mills will not pay voluntarily more; they are not philanthropic enterprises but business enterprises. If officers of a milling corporation should be moved by generosity to pay more for wheat than the least that farmers will accept, the stockholders of the corporation would have legal remedies. The officers would betray the trust reposed in them if they failed to make maximum profits for the stockholders. If officers of a baking corporation should sell bread for less than the traffic will bear and should thereby fail to secure maximum profits for stockholders, these officers also would be betraying a trust. Such things seldom happen; in such ways officers of corporations generally prove trustworthy.

Business is not organized to reduce the spread between the producer and the consumer; business is organized to increase that spread. American business is more efficient than business in England or elsewhere. That is why the spread between the producer and the consumer is greater in America than in other nations.

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In Industrial Democracy Plumb and Roylance say: "For more than a year after the price of wheat had fallen to an average of a dollar a bushel, bread continued to sell at fifteen cents for a one-pound loaf. A barrel of flour, made from about four and a half bushels of wheat, would make 300 loaves of bread, so that the farmer received for the wheat that made forty-five dollars' worth of bread less than five dollars. The food products taken out in milling more than paid the cost of milling. The bakery cost, exclusive of the price of flour, was not over two cents a loaf. So that it cost only nine dollars to make the flour and to bake and sell the bread for which the consumer paid forty-five dollars. Deducting the five dollars paid to the farmer for wheat, there remained thirty-one dollars that was absorbed in transportation and dealers' charges between the farm and the consumer."

The distribution of the forty-five dollars suggests why business urges that consumers eat more bread to help the farmers.

In 1883, when wheat on Iowa and Dakota farms sold at present prices, the Howe National Bakery of New York was retailing good bread at four cents a pound. Edward Atkinson in that year computed the cost of bread ready for distribution in Boston at three and a half cents a pound, using in his computation the high costs of a small bakery. The details of the computation were submitted to a committee of the United States Senate and are accessible in Atkinson's book on The Distribution of Products.

In November 1917, when Herbert Hoover was United States Food Administrator and Chairman of the Commission for Relief in Belgium, the Macmillan Company published a book on The Food Problem by two of his staff, Professor Vernon Kellogg, of Stanford University, and Professor Alonzo E. Taylor, of the University of Pennsylvania; the preface to the book is by Mr. Hoover. Of work in America the authors report that "A great Food Administration Grain Corporation and a Food Administration Milling Division have been formed to control the handling, purchase, sale, distribution and export of wheat and flour. As a first and immediate result of these two cooperating bodies of the Food Administration, flour is today being sold to the consumer at three dollars a barrel less than it was before their organization, and the producer is getting an increase of price for his wheat equivalent to three dollars a barrel as interpreted in flour. That is, a middleman profiteering of six dollars a barrel has been wiped out."

Of the work of German authorities the authors say: "Despite the fact that the price of grain was distinctly higher than the pre-war level, the cost of bread was maintained at practically the pre-war figure. The formula by which this was accomplished was one that has been worked out in Belgium by the American Relief Commission during the first year of the war, and runs to the effect that the price of bread per pound must not exceed the price of flour per pound. Now, since one pound of flour produces about one and one third pounds of bread, the sole profit for the baker lay in this difference. A pound of grain under ordinary circumstances produces a little less than three quarters of a pound of flour, and since a pound of flour produces a pound and a third of bread it was approximately true to say that a pound of grain equals a pound of bread. Since the differential between grain and flour was relatively low the end result was that the price of bread per pound to the consumer was practically the same as the price of grain per pound to the producer."

That was the rule in Belgium and in Germany, a one-pound loaf to the consumer for about the price that the producer received for a pound of wheat. It was a low price for bread, and led to some use of substitutes for a part of the wheat flour. The price of two pounds of wheat would have been held an impossibly high retail price for a pound loaf made from pure wheat. Such a price now in America would be well under the English retail price. The consumer would then be buying thirty one-pound loaves of pure wheat bread for the price that the farmer receives for a bushel of wheat, which is less than ninety cents; the price would not exceed three cents a loaf. The farmer is not receiving enough to keep him growing wheat; a substantial addition made to what he receives would still permit the one-pound loaf to retail for five cents, if a pound of bread cost twice as much as a pound of wheat. Five cents for a one-pound loaf is above the present price in England and is above the war-time price in Germany.

Under the circumstances, American farmers who grow less wheat are judicious; they may not secure a higher price, but they will reduce expenses. Food supplies, which determine population, are now determined by the profits of business. The efficiency of business is depopulating rural America; in the cities it reduces the real wages of every worker, with resulting under-nourishment and mortality.

CLARKE F. ANSLEY

The Fallen Leader

THE infant mortality rate of labor papers is always high. They tend to die young. The New York Leader, after the briefest of brief careers, has been discontinued, and all the other newspapers and weeklies which welcomed so enthusiastically a paper which would express not only the views and interests of labor, but also be a free press in the sense that it was not controlled by any individual for his own advantage but by a group of workers, are regretful to see it go. What was the trouble?

The Leader, which took over the plant and the organization of the old Call, a Socialist paper, more than doubled its circulation during its short life. It had become a delightful paper to read, with a refreshing freedom of comment on all matters which were supposed to be of interest to the people who work for wages—and that is most of us. It was, of course, partisan to labor, but it did take a broad view of all public affairs and attempted to give the news—local, state, national and international—without adulteration. Very possibly its moderation was in itself a count against it. For we have grown to like our news highly spiced to suit our individual prejudices. The readers of the Call were used to a systematic and continuous arraignment of the capitalist system. The readers of the capitalist papers are accustomed to read interpretations of the news in the terms of that part of society which is entrenched business. The Leader made an attempt to tell things as they were. The only selection of the news which it obviously made was to publish such items as would interest the laboring class.

It was quoted and commented on throughout the country and yet it failed. Why? To say that it was lack of money is only half the answer. The trouble seems to have been lack of understanding. The unions who backed it did not realize the financial needs of a daily paper, or perhaps the leaders did not want it enough to present a united front to

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the membership of their different unions, and get a sufficient contribution to tide it over the period of infancy. It is estimated to cost in New York at least a million dollars to launch a new paper of any size and carry it through a year. The Leader started with approximately one-tenth of that sum. It was their paper—but there was no extended or persistent campaign to get the 300,000 members who owned it actually to take it and read it. A paper with a circulation of 300,000 is pretty certain of success. But this was not only launched with insufficient capital but into the midst of a divided labor movement, and became the target at which all the sides in the internal struggle aimed their shots.

This pushes the question back to a further stage. Why was a campaign necessary to get the working man to read a labor newspaper? It reduces itself to a question of psychology. Does the working man get all the news he cares for on labor matters through his organizations and want something quite different when he takes up his evening paper? This may be so. As a matter of fact only two pages of The Leader were devoted to strictly labor news. Does he want sports such as every other newspaper gives him? The Leader had two pages of sport news which were admittedly excellent. If he cares for international news it is true that The Leader carried very little. If it was cartoons he wanted there were excellent ones. There were "comics," there were two columns of such wit as—in the opinion of some hardened newspaper readers—no other New York paper could match, there was reasonable attention to sensation, to general politics, to local news; there was an editorial page which might be frankly termed a free expression of opinion. It was not biased by anything but the individual opinions of the men who wrote it. It was exceedingly well done and interesting.

Now obviously these are not the things that the working man organized in unions in New York City wants in his paper. What does he want? Some time there will be another attempt made to find out, probably just as costly, just as arduous and just as heart-breaking if it fails. At present the organized worker seems satisfied with the ordinary press. It is not a free press that he cares for so far. There is no question that he can have such a press as he chooses to establish. He is hundreds of thousands strong in New York City and well able to pay for what he wants. The trouble is either that he does not know what he wants or that he is satisfied with what he already has. It is for the rest of us to write a regretful requiescat in pace for The Leader, which showed during its short life how excellent a labor newspaper could be. M. B. B.

Right Now It Isn't So Bad

IN these days we have grown to see Movements in black curves on white paper and have learned to plot Tendencies in charts. It is a new exercise in visualization and we have developed great proficiency at it. As a result of this new ability of ours has come the habit of seeing things in process instead of in cross-section. And this in turn is developing in us the intent to find out where we are going and why.

For this reason the report just published by the New York State Bureau of Women in Industry on the wages and hours of women in five industries is specially significant. It marks the position of the workers in these five industries at the end of the decade which began with the Report of the Factory Investigating Commission, published in 1914, and included an investigation made by the New York State Department of Labor in 1918. These three investigations cover not only the same industries, but in very many cases exactly the same establishments. We are able to see conditions from the beginning, the middle and the end of the decade which is just closing.

Wage Changes in a Decade

The industries investigated are classified as: confectionery, paper box, shirts and collars, tobacco and mercantile, which includes chiefly the employes in large department stores and small retail dry-goods establishments, with a small proportion (11 per cent) from the 5 and 10 cent stores throughout the state. Exactly what has happened in these separate industries is shown in the following table:

	MEDIAN WEEKLY WAGE		
INDUSTRY	1913	1918	1923
Confectionery	$ 5.75	$ 9.75	$13.25
Paper Box	6.75	11.25	14.25
Shirts and Collars	6.75	11.25	14.75
Tobacco	....	14.25	16.75
Mercantile	7.25	11.75	16.25

The figures are far from self-explanatory. Exactly what do these wages, which in most cases have more than doubled in ten years, mean in opportunities and comfort and security to the women who are earning them? To make any fair appraisal we must realize that the cost of living has gone up approximately 60 per cent in ten years. There were times at the end of the war when it had doubled. There have been various drops and subsequent upheavals of that cost since 1918.

At present the standard for 50 per cent of the workers appears to be slightly below the peak. But by no possible standards did the wages received by the confectionery, paper box, shirt and collar and mercantile workers in 1913, either up-state in New York or in New York City itself, constitute a living wage. Ten years ago the average worker in these industries was earning less than she had to spend to live in decency. In 1918 the Consumers League of New York estimated the cost of living for women to be $14.80 a week. At this time 50 per cent of all the workers in the five industries investigated, except the tobacco industry, were earning far less than their cost of living. There is no question, however, that by 1918 the wages of these employes tended to be much nearer what it cost them to live than they had five years earlier. So far the progress begins to be comforting.

What has happened in the last five years of the decade? To quote the report:

> A picture of economic conditions during the period in which this study was made shows business in general to be in a state of prosperity, and the wage earner in a comparatively advantageous position in relation to the cost of living.

It is a good tendency but it has not gone anything like far enough. For we still have in New York State in 1923 more than one-quarter of the women in the four factory industries and almost one-fifth of those in the mercantile industry earning less than $12 a week, and more than half in the factories and nearly half in the stores earning less than $16 a week, while only 7 per cent of the factory workers and 13 per cent of the mercantile employes earn as much as $25 a week. That is, the percentage of these women

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who are working for wages who earn enough to be comfortable on, to save a little money for old age and presumably to take a little pleasure, a little education as they go along, has not yet reached an average of 10 per cent —and this, as the report says, at a time of business expansion, and when there is admittedly very little unemployment.

Eight Hour Progress

Of course, wages are only part of it. The state of New York has had since 1909 a law prohibiting the employment of women for more than 54 hours in any one week; that is, 9 hours a day, 6 days in the week. There has grown to be a general feeling that 8 hours work a day and a half-holiday on Saturday is far better for human beings than the steady 9-hour day. The trade unions have insisted on the 8-hour day for men as well as women, though in most cities their demands keep well ahead of the law, and still 48 hours or less was the schedule working-week for more than half of the women in the five industries. And this schedule was in effect for 74 per cent of the women in New York City and 30 per cent of the women up-state. It is true that the actual hours worked varied considerably from those scheduled. But establishments which maintained the 48-hour week had in general more stable employment and higher wages. That is, they showed a greater proportion of full-time work than establishments which went nearer the limit of the law. This seems to show that long hours mean periods of unemployment and times when women are working less than full time and receiving, of course, far less than a living wage. It indicates that it is easier to stabilize industry and with it employment, on a shorter day and a shorter week than on a longer one.

Why Are Conditions Better?

Some interesting things the report does not take up, but which are implied all through it, are worth considering. Have these advances come about by law? Not to any great extent. The 54-hour law was in effect before the first of these investigations. It is still in effect but the existing conditions are considerably in advance of it.

We have no minimum wage, no official standard of living below which wages may not be depressed, and yet low as they still are wages are obviously tending to approach what it is possible to live on.

How far have the trade-unions been effective in improving conditions? To a very slight extent. In these occupations the unions are admittedly not very effective. There are practically none in the mercantile establishments where wages are comparatively high. Tobacco workers' organizations are torn by rival factions and have not greatly affected the condition of the women working in the trade. The shirt and collar workers have a long history of attempting unionism. Organizations started through the last twenty years have flourished for a short time and have been broken up. They have in no case been particularly powerful. The paper box trade and the confectionery trade are notoriously weak so far as union organization of the women is concerned. In all of these five occupations it is fair to discount any effect that the unions have had in improving conditions.

What has really happened is that during this decade, in spite of the depression just before the war and the sudden slump after it, business has been remarkably prosperous. Employment has been general, and there has been a steady rise in the standards of living. More things are demanded for comfort. A living wage is gradually being seen as something more than just enough money to exist on. The rights of the employes to free time and leisure have extended from just enough time to sleep and eat to enough for self-improvement and recreation. The fact that there was not a great surplus of labor to be drawn on has made it possible for these standards to be actually put into effect to a certain extent through the factories and through the mercantile establishments. As the head of one of the large labor organizations has just said,

> Conditions are not so bad. They are getting enough to live on, and the employers aren't going around with a chip on their shoulders as much as they did ten years ago. It's like this. As long as the public is willing to pay these high prices the employers are willing to pay a little more on wages if they can tack it on to the public afterwards. It makes it easier for them. They will get the chips back on their shoulders, and the trouble will begin when the public stops paying these prices. They will reduce wages so they can still make their profits. But right now it isn't so bad.

The Public's Job

The present report shows without any question the controlling power of public opinion. We have had two decades of public education in what it means to the community that women should not work the long hours, and that they should be paid enough to live on in comfort. And even though the laws in New York State do not demand either a living wage or an 8-hour day, the public is beginning to insist that these things shall exist. There is an immense amount to do. Public opinion has got to be jacked along to other things than merely enough to live on and an 8-hour day. But it is quite obvious that it has already done a good deal. It is important, of course, for us not to forget that 50 per cent of the workers are getting less than what might be called a living wage even on the present schedules and not rest too securely on the fact that 50 per cent can live in comparative decency.

We are still very far behind some of our neighbors among the nations. In New Zealand the hours which women may work in factories are limited to 45 a week. In South Africa they are limited to 50 hours a week. Among the Latin-American republics, Ecuador, Peru and Uruguay have legislation establishing an 8-hour day. In four of the fourteen provinces of the Argentine the hours of labor are limited to eight. Chile has introduced a bill for the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week. The Republic of Panama established the 8-hour day in 1914. The new federal constitution of Mexico confers on the constituent states the power to regulate labor matters provided they adhere to certain standards, two of which are the maximum working day of 8 hours and a weekly day of rest. Even in Europe, torn with the throes of reconstruction, the 48-hour week is provided for in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Norway, Spain and Sweden, while Poland and Latvia have a 46-hour week, and in Italy, Portugal, Lithuania and Jugo-Slavia the 48-hour week and the 8-hour day are imposed by law. But not only has the United States as a whole no federal limitation of the hours which women may work for wages as so many of the other countries have, but even New York State with her 54-hour week would be hopelessly behind the procession if it were not for the force of public opinion, which is tending to bring it down to the level worked out in other countries.

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EDUCATION

"New Schools"—At Home and Abroad

MAN," said Aristotle, "man is an institution-building animal." Institutions come and go, but institution-building goes on forever. When any one institution fails of its avowed purpose, with hope deferred but by no means diminished, we immediately set to work to build another. We may not have much faith in life, itself; but we make up for lack in that direction by having an abounding faith in institutions—which, indeed, like the shell of the oyster, protect us somewhat from too close contact with reality.

Our times offer fresh testimony to this human tendency in all that has to do with education. Our faith in schools has suffered a severe shock in recent decades. But knowing no education save that which comes from schools, we must continue to make use of schools. Having lost faith in schools, we build more schools. Despairing of an education by "credits" we place new emphasis upon the value of credits. In place of our "old schools," we are setting up all sorts of "new schools." The school is dead: Long live the school!

What is the difference between an "old school" and a "new school"? All sorts of "old-fashioned schools" are round about us. Many sorts of "new schools" are asking for the support of the public. Some of the "old schools" are posing as "new schools"; and some of the "old schools" are turning out results that would be a credit to the most ambitious of the "new schools." How can the real "new school" be distinguished from the traditional school, or from the "old school" that poses as the "new"? Are the differentia to be found in the physical equipment; in the number of pupils to the teacher; in the length of the school day; in the types of activities carried on, and the kinds of subjects taught; in the amounts of money expended per pupil? In none of these. Two schools might be exactly alike in each of these criteria; yet one of them might be the most progressive of "new schools," the other the most laggard of the "old."

The fundamental difference between the two types of schools appears in one place, and in one place, only; namely, in the minds of the children: if the children are actively enlisted in the task of educating themselves, then that school is a "new" school, no matter how old it may be; and if the children are passively waiting for some one to come and "learn" them, then that school is an "old" school, no matter how new it may be, or how loud its professions of "newness" may ring. Activity, self-initiated and self-explanatory, on the part of the children is the mark of the "new school"; passivity, whatever its cause may be, is the mark of the old school.

If the children are actively enlisted in the task of educating themselves, then that school is a new school, no matter how old it may be; and if the children are passively waiting for some one to come and "learn" them, then that school is an old school, no matter how new it may consider itself to be.

But activity and passivity are both relative terms, subject to continuous shiftings and to varied combinations. In one environment; in one schoolroom; with one teacher, or with one set of materials, a group of children may be extraordinarily active, alert, interested. Change any one of the factors in the situation and the degree of their activity may change; change them all and the activity may die out completely. In almost every "old school," there is at least one teacher who conducts what is essentially and within limits a "new school"; in almost every "new school," there are teachers who soon reduce their pupils to a state of near-passivity. Few "old schools" are entirely "old" in all respects; no "new school" reaches the complete fulfilment of its professions. On the borderline, there is little to choose between the "new school" that does not quite dare assert its own freedom from the lag of its teachers and its patrons, and the "old school" that tries but cannot quite escape from the lag of its old traditionalisms. And, of course, the natural trend of every "new school" is toward a complete habit-structure of its own. "The gobbeluns'll git yuh if yuh don't watch out!"

Europe, in ferment, has gone further than America in dealing with these questions. The League Internationale pour l'Education Nouvelle adopted, in 1921, a charter of principles and aims that expresses the most progressive hopes; for example: "The essential object of all education should be to train the child to desire the supremacy of spirit over matter and to express that supremacy in daily life."

Yet this very statement shows the contradictions inherent in almost all discussions about the "new education." Even the most progressive of the "new schools" seem not to be able to escape from such expressions as "train the child."

"Freedom is the only discipline!" is another of these easily uttered principles. But, so far, certain "new schools" in Germany seem to have been most successful in establishing conditions within which this statement comes to mean what it says. In certain of the public schools of Hamburg, developed under the leadership of Paulsen, the freedom of the children has been secured and safe-guarded, if we may believe recent reports from that city. "In these Hamburg schools," says Carleton W. Washburne, superintendent of public schools, Winnetka, Illinois, (as quoted in the Bulletin of the Progressive Education Association for October), there are no set lessons, not even a course of study or a program. There are no grades and consequently no promotions.

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There are no examinations and therefore no marks or failures or rewards for good work. There is no discipline by the teachers; the teachers themselves are not even under the authority of the principal. The schools are quite anarchistic. The children may go to any teacher they wish, associating themselves either with children older or younger, as they see fit. The teacher talks about anything that interests him or the children. The schoolhouse is there, the children are there, and the teachers are there: this is all these schools have in common with other schools. There is misbehavior at times, there is inefficiency frequently; but out of it all there emerges a spirit of self-reliance, spontaneity, and individual development that is truly fine. Only in two schools in Czecho-Slovakia where much freedom was also permitted did we find anything like the same affectionateness, naturalness, and general lovableness which characterized the children in these Hamburg schools.

The philosophy back of these Hamburg schools would express itself in some such fashion as this:

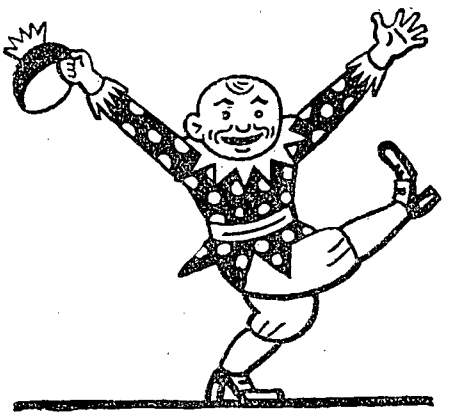
We do not know what any child is going to do or be in later life. We do not know in Germany what kind of government or industrial organization is going to exist when these children grow up, whether it will be socialistic or capitalistic, monarchistic or anarchistic, or republican. We do not know how to solve the problems that are facing humanity and therefore cannot train children to solve them. We know one thing only, that these children are living human beings and have a right to develop as such. We do not want to impose adult ideas upon children; we do not want to waste time drilling children in knowledge which they may never use, and which, if they do need it, they can gain quickly as adults under the spur of necessity, instead of slowly as children with no use for it. If each child is able to develop his own individuality fully and freely, we may be able to train up a race of men and women who can face the problems of life fearlessly and originally. Such children may have a light which we lack. At any rate they will be free-thinking, unrepressed, complete individuals.

This is probably the most liberal educational ideal professed anywhere in the world today. Moreover, the general ferment of life in Germany has made it possible for this program to escape from the school, as an institution, into the community as life. Certain "new schools" in America use language similar to this in their descriptions of their work; but they are unable to get very far in the actual working out of their professions. The impact of community life; the demand for vocational preparation; the necessity of getting ready for high school or college: some one or all of these interfere with the "full and free development of individuality."

The effect of this Hamburg experiment on the teaching profession is worth a passing notice. The story is told by Peter H. Pearson, specialist in foreign education for the United States Bureau of Education, in School Life, for November last. After describing the evolution of these schools, Mr. Pearson says: "Here, incapable teachers had no chance whatever for success. One of the leaders told a chance visitor, 'We shall not be able to reform the school until we reform ourselves.' "

A report on these schools by a Swiss teacher was given before the Teachers' Association, at Basel, says Mr. Pearson. The general discussion which followed the report showed but little sympathy for the Hamburg schools: they were an innovation that did not appeal to the Swiss teachers.

In these last suggestions there is a hint of that "vicious circle" about which we read. No school can advance faster than the teachers will move; and few teachers will move faster than the system makes safe. Progress of the system waits upon the reform of the teachers; and reform of the teachers waits upon the progress of the system. Old methods are pretty generally criticised; but anyone who suggests new methods, particularly if those new methods involve new ideas, does so at his own risk. Many American teachers have learned in the last ten years that entertaining novel ideas is a too expensive luxury. "It's all very well for Hamburg," an American critic might say; "but wait until the system grows up again, and then see what happens. Hamburg teachers are running things now, but their day will be short: wait till the community gets back at them!"



The Junior Red Cross Monthly, Prague

And yet these Hamburg schools seem to have achieved some of the things teachers and parents everywhere are verbally clamoring for: "There is a close contact between the home and the schools, the parents and the teachers; there are school visits and parents' unions, and the direct aid of fathers and mothers. . . . The Hamburg schools are, it may be said, growing into a school community."

Schoolish discussions are almost everywhere shot through and through with contradictions; teachers everywhere face fundamental dilemmas; community opinion vacillates everywhere between belief in freedom and fear of too much freedom—between desire for an education for individuality and fear that individuality may presage change. More than this, both community and professional opinion deprecates the uncovering of these contradictions, dilemmas, vacillations. This is the reason why most community gatherings that deal with schools resolve themselves into "booster meetings" for the schools; and this is the reason why most educational gatherings turn out to be so traditionally dull. The real problems in education today are the contradictions, the dilemmas, the conflicts between ideals. These few teachers and fewer parents are willing to bring out into the open, for clear, incisive discussion.

None the less educational thinking must penetrate to the furthest reaches of these problems; and educational experimentation must explore the possibilities that lie hidden behind these dilemmas and contradictions. In the next six months, this department will carry a series of such discussions and probings into the hinterlands of the schools, new and old.

J. K. H.

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How Iowa Impresses Harvard

"EAST is East and West is West." What striking aspects of mid-western education first attract the eye of the Easterner? After four years at Harvard and the same number as instructor in two mid-western universities, I'm beginning to presume that I can answer the question, partially. At least, I find several aspects slightly different from my anticipations.

The first thing the complacent Easterner expects not to find in the Middle West is culture, "the development of the finer instincts," to quote the University of Iowa daily. In general he will be satisfied. If he is an instructor of English he will discover that half his class have never seen a play of Shakespeare. Two students may know the four fundamental feet of poetry. One student will ask what Homer's last name was. Two others, requested for English derivatives from lex, legis (law) and "pan" (all), will give "legs" and "pantorium," respectively. There will be sub-freshman classes in Mathematics and English—an ingenious device for picking up the incompetent which the instructor never heard of in the East. He will soon learn that most of his freshmen have never written a theme since freshman year in High School. The university may also have no literary magazine. Still the dean of a prominent "Big Ten" university remarked last year, "The West is offering a challenge to the East, in culture as well as in athletics. Saturday's victory (over Yale) demonstrates our progress in athletics. This places the West in the limelight. Once there our advancing culture will be recognized."

In place of this anticipated failing of the West, the Easterner looks for that equally vague, aromatic ether he has heard of since childhood—Western Spirit. In fact, for a few weeks he is a bit worried lest some street-sweeper will suddenly drop his broom and rush over to clap him on the back with an impetuous volubility of Welcome. Having survived this period successfully he begins to wonder where all this democracy—called Western Spirit— is hiding itself. True, he has been welcomed for what he is. No one has deliberately snubbed him, à la Beacon Street, or the Somerset. But he has a faint, disagreeable suspicion that he is being "looked over," not quite openly. He talks brazenly about Cambridge, "Haavuud," and the East, until some kind soul comes along and warns him to drop this "line" if he expects to "get along out here." He does meekly and from that moment finds himself more graciously received everywhere. The college daily takes a few "shots" at his green bag and even offers to buy him a new hat, to replace the one he threw over the Yale goal posts. Sacrilege! But if he takes it all right he will find the Western Spirit gradually enveloping him; and he suddenly wakes up, one day, to find himself really a part of the great western university that is turning out young human machines.

What Is the Western Spirit?

As a matter of curiosity I had my students write, once, on "Western Spirit." I got the following revealing remarks: "Good sportsmanship, good fellowship, and equality for all"; "hospitality," "push," "public spirit," "not what you have been in the past." "If you are a man, you are welcome whether stranger or native." "It is a subconscious spirit and is found in the majority. They have seen it when they were young; they were brought up with it; they have stayed with it to the last." "Western Spirit is the *ambition* of the people, west of the Mississippi River, which is leading to their advancement in athletics and education . . . As the enrollment increases, the spirit increases, and there will be a greater interest in both athletics and education, which are the two main elements in the development of a higher standard of a university."

Connected with it is an appreciation of self-help in college, for one student writes: "The Easterners seem more aristocratic than the Westerners. They look down on a man that is working his way through college by waiting tables or doing similar work, while the more democratic people of the West even look up to a man of this type." Finally, the bonuses western states are providing for ex-service men, who become in college "Federal Board Students," show clearly the democratic spirit of the West working for an education for all its children, "with malice toward none."

Crowding the Clsssroom

The next item that immediately catches the eye of the effete Easterner is the huge numbers of students in mid-western universities. For figures: Iowa has more than doubled her registration in five years. Wisconsin, Michigan, Illinois, and Chicago enrolled more than ten thousand students during 1921-22. Four other mid-western universities —Nebraska, Minnesota, Northwestern, and Ohio—went above six thousand eight hundred. There are students in Iowa alone from thirty-eight states (other than Iowa), and from China, Japan, Java, Belgium, France, Argentine, Bolivia, Canada, Honolulu, Lithuania, and the Philippine Islands. Even the Graduate College—non-professional and therefore the weakest—increased 30 per cent over last year.

Athletics have certainly had some share in this increasing enrollment. The Homecoming Game is "the biggest 'educational' event of the year!" Thirty-six hundred clippings came to the Iowa University News office on the Yale game alone. Writes a student of mine: "A championship football team will build a larger university and put more spirit into all concerned." Declares another: "It advertises the college as being a live college . . . In the classroom the students will enter whole-heartedly into their work because they know that they have a reputation to uphold and maintain." But most astonishing of all, one student reverses the situation, exclaiming: "To make a championship football team there must be material available. Material does not only mean strength and size but it means men with brains . . . Therefore, to a certain extent, it is up to the professors to make the football team!" Athletics are certainly enlarging, though not necessarily ruining, these universities.

The negative effects of such a huge student body are quite obvious. From the instructor's point of view, ordinary sections mount quickly from twenty-five to forty. I find that, along with such a rise, the physical tensity of a class increases almost proportionally—each added individual adds his electric energy to the group and requires just so much more of the instructor's vitality to meet the addition. Most instructors agree that it is actually harder, physically or "electrically," to teach a class of thirty-five than one of twenty-five. And furthermore, the instructor immediately has to decrease the paper work and individual conferences or be completely swamped by the flood of students on his

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hands. Thus the most effective element of the teaching is at once greatly diminished.

From the student's point of view there are also distinct drawbacks. His room rent rises by leaps and bounds in a small town, and if he is poor, he deplores the fact that the jobs aren't "going around" as well as they used to. Finally, intellectually, he is getting less attention from his instructors, and is gradually being lost in the crowd that surges about him.

The Agility Tests

There have been obvious methods of relief proposed. The most popular has been the so-called "intelligence" tests, to weed out the unfit at entrance. Now aside from the fact that the West objects to such restriction of education to the privileged few, no test has been devised—and I venture to say can be devised—to measure the multiple variations of human capabilities under the infinite varieties of circumstances and environments. The idea of admitting students to college by a system of mental acrobatics is about as futile as attempting to "beat" Monte Carlo with a bundle of "sure-fire systems." The percentage of chance is too high. Hugo Münsterburg six years ago at Harvard "discovered" by his "intelligence" tests that the most intellectually perfect man of my senior class was an individual whom, with all due respect, we never thought of considering for Phi Beta Kappa, and who furthermore was, possibly through no great fault of his own, unknown both athletically and socially in the class. And the other day one of my freshmen said to me: "I've worked hard in this course, but I know I'm not as good as B— and W—. (He had a C.) Yet you may not believe it but I ranked first in the freshman class in the 'intelligence' tests. I think those tests merely measure the *agility of a man's mind, not his intelligence.*" Apparently six years, then, have by no means changed the fallibility of these tests.

The only other relief for the flood of students seems to be the Administration—that is, ultimately, the State. The Daily Iowan recently remarked:

> State tax supported educational institutions have reached a stage in their development demanding a definite policy in regard to the limitation of enrollment . . . it is a physical impossibility for most state institutions to accommodate more students than they already have.
>
> There are two solutions to the problem. Either legislators must increase appropriations to educational institutions or the latter must adopt measures to exclude a large number of those who wish to further their education. The first, state legislatures seem loath to do. There only remains the second alternative. Which means that we are progressing towards an aristocracy of brains whether we will or not.

The only real solutions, then, seem to be stringent entrance examinations, or more rigid elimination at the end of the freshman year.

The Nerve-Wracking Co-ed

Connected with this huge student body—in fact, a part of it—are the women. Co-education in the East is a thing abhorred: Cornell University, for example. Yet out here, the Easterner suddenly discovers, women cannot be overlooked. For figures: Wisconsin in 1921-22 had 2,713 women and 5,043 men. Iowa in 1921-22 had 1,473 women and 2,753 men. One-third or more of the students in these suburbs of the East, then, are women.

The co-eds are a nerve-wracking institution. From the instructor's point of view they are generally clever, cold, amazingly vital and unfortunately good-looking. They will work an instructor to a "fare-thee-well," if he is not careful. If they want to get initiated into a sorority they will come to his office and settle down for half an hour (or more if necessary) to "explain" the situation and the necessary grade required. If they are successful they are not only satisfied but will very likely cut him the next time they see him on the street, should they feel like it. One eastern instructor with six eight-o'clocks and a fatal office hour at twelve daily lost his breakfasts and lunches throughout most of the week, because the co-eds organized delegations to "work on" him during those office hours. He could never get himself "hard-boiled" enough to dismiss them and he suffered badly before he learned how to handle them.

With regard to the girls' relations with undergraduates I hardly feel qualified to speak. That they are all very happy and carefree together I can readily see, but that the university is something of a marriage bureau I don't think can be overlooked. One freshman boy came up one day to ask me the name of "the girl on the end of the front row." I told him, and they've been together daily ever since. The Daily Iowan recently violently opposed "the ban placed on student marriages by Chancellor Flint of Syracuse University."

This university, in fact, has even gone so far as to engage good-naturedly in a camera flash-light contest, directed at sorority porches to "catch patters"—in the midst of which a Northwestern undergraduate arrived in town, announcing that she was so pursued in Northwestern that she fled here for a "rest." Kissing, I am told, is as promiscuous as dancing, but beyond that I prefer not to go, though the Daily Iowan has remarked: "While it cannot be said that the university is the best place for the acquirement of sex knowledge, yet it is the best that modern society has to offer." Still, in spite of the fact that, without doubt, many of these co-eds are following Herrick's advice,

> Then be not coy, but use your time,
> And while ye may, go marry;
> For having lost but once your prime,
> You may forever tarry,

the figures on their grades are rather interesting to note:

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA
1921-22

All women	average 80.2%	All men	average 74.45%
All sorority women	average 80.9%	All fraternity men	average 76.69%

Which merely means, possibly, that women can do two things well, at once.

A more mundane source of interest to the Easterner is the instructional staff. Out in these mid-western universities there are two, or rather three large broods of distinctly practical professors—Matthew Arnold would denote them the great American Philistines: professors of agriculture, engineering, and commerce. The first brood have been hatched out of golden eggs, and drive around Madison, for instance, in large cars, about whose merits they argue with each other continuously and vociferously. The second brood came from cast-iron eggs, and here in Iowa, as one of them admitted to me the other day, carry on their existence mainly outside the classroom by devising engineering schemes whereby they can make money on the side, and generally also fight with each other, as to who discovered the scheme first. And the third brood came from bronze eggs, and

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brazenly tell you that marketing and advertising are the Gods of Olympus, and hold over the president's head the fact that they can run off and get business jobs at any moment. They, too, have a tendency to discuss salaries eternally and contentiously, over their teacups. Now all these broods are very interesting, if you like machinery; but I fear they are all very much like the Robots in "R. U. R." —they are rapidly sweeping the rest of us off the map.

R. W. BABCOCK

A County Child Study Bureau

CAREFUL study of the progress of school children shows that our present uniform curriculum is ill adapted to the capacity and ability of many pupils. Pupils who do not learn to read or to acquire information from text books readily are seriously handicapped: they become discouraged and may lose interest in school work. Others who have superior quality find their work so easy that they fail to acquire good habits of study and application. Though they may not be over-age for their grades, these brighter pupils, because they have no chance to do the best of which they are capable, are really retarded. Extra promotions or skipping grades occurs so seldom that from eight to ten times as many dull pupils fail to secure promotion as there are bright ones who secure extra promotions.

Hence there is an increasing percentage of over-age pupils up to the fifth or sixth grade. Beyond that, these over-age pupils are old enough to leave school for work, and so they drop out.

The main means for improving this situation should be: (1.) An understanding of the individual differences of pupils; (2.) Adaption of the curriculum to groups of pupils of different capacity and ability; (3.) Placing each pupil where he can make progress most advantageously.

Adaptation of the curriculum will require differentiation in content, method, and expected rate of progress, and improvement in administration, supervision, and teacher training. Much of this can be effected by classifying pupils into sections for which different curricula are offered. The movement toward such classification is developing rapidly in Pennsylvania.

Such classification requires a knowledge of individual differences. The previous school progress of the pupils is a more or less valid index of his ability. Knowledge of his physical condition is secured from the report of the medical examiner. Knowledge of his home environment is a necessary factor.

Success in school work depends in a large degree upon the pupil's native intelligence. Recent developments of clinical psychology and of group testing make possible a reasonably valid measurement of his general intelligence and special abilities. This work is psycho-educational and should be carried on by persons trained in clinical psychology, education and mental measurement.

Many school districts are too small to afford the full time of a trained clinical psychologist. This situation suggests cooperation among the school districts of a county or other convenient unit.

The County Child Study Bureau offers an organization on this cooperative basis in Pennsylvania. The school districts of Beaver County, of boroughs and townships alike, have recently organized the Beaver County Child Study Bureau. A committee made up of representatives from different districts has the project in charge. Funds at the rate of ten cents per pupil are being secured by the different districts. Headquarters were secured at New Brighton in an easily accessible locality. The cooperation of public health and welfare agencies is assured. An experienced clinical psychologist giving full time to this work has been made director of the bureau. Medical examinations are made by the school medical inspectors. A psychiatric consultant from one of the state hospitals will hold mental clinics each month at headquarters for the examination of problem cases involving problems in mental hygiene. Other medical specialists will be consulted as the occasion arises.

Dull, over-age, maladjusted pupils are not the only children who should be studied. There are many problems of guidance, educational, vocational, and social, in the case of normal pupils of good or superior intelligence that require thorough and scientific study. In what high school curriculum is this boy most likely to succeed? Should he go to high school at all? What high school pupils should go to college or to technical school for further training? Where the rating of pupils by teachers and the scores they make in group tests are in agreement the results are usually valid indices of the pupils' relative abilities. Where these measures are at variance further study of each individual pupil is indicated, whether he is retarded in his school work or not. No program of testing pupils by the standard group intelligence tests can be fully effective unless it can be followed up by these individual studies in doubtful cases. It is neither feasible nor desirable to expect individual examinations in all cases; yet, without some such service as that afforded by the Child Study Bureau, group tests can never be expected to be wholly satisfactory.

One important by-product of this program of individual child study is always reported wherever it has been inaugurated. Teachers become more observant of individual differences in their pupils, whether they have been examined or not, and more resourceful in the adaptation of work to their needs. The superior teacher has always shown common sense and imagination in this direction. Teachers of less experience or insight who come in touch with these methods of scientific child study become interested and encouraged, are happier in their teaching, and are more successful in securing results.

Beaver County is to be congratulated on its pioneer work in making a service of this kind available for small school districts through its Child Study Bureau.

FRANCES N. MAXFIELD

SOME INTERESTING EXPERIMENTS

PERHAPS the most extensive experiment now going forward in America is the one that has to do with determining whether the American people can be kept forever ignorant and prejudiced about certain European matters of concern. This experiment takes many turns. A recent development in it will illustrate the whole problem. In his article on the "German Youth Movement" in Survey Graphic of January 1, 1922, Bruno Lasker gave both sides of the story, the ugly with the beautiful, the yearning for life which the old order in Germany had so largely denied to its youth, along with some of the

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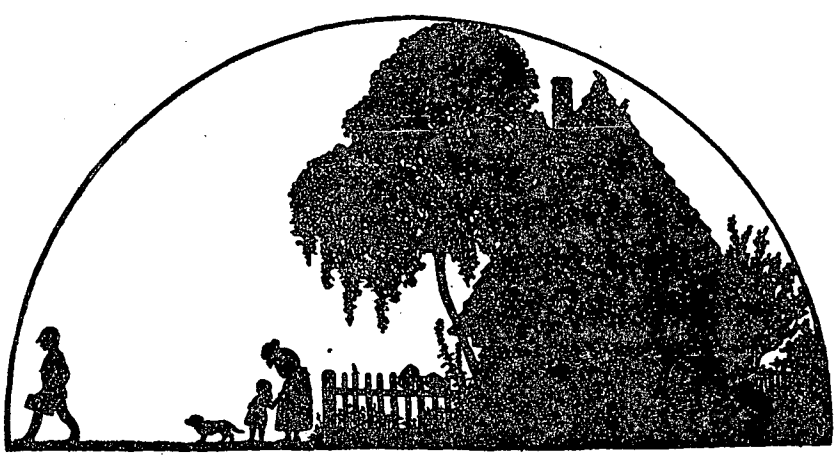
excesses into which youth, unguided, is always likely to fall. That article has been widely quoted. Propagandists for the old order have, however, carefully avoided quoting anything but the uglier phases of it. For example, the Philadelphia North American, in a recent editorial warning to "the parents of Pennsylvania" against the insidious menace of the "youth movement," prints nearly a column of extracts from Mr. Lasker's article, carefully selecting nothing that would by any chance lead any reader to retain a shred of faith in German youth, or, indeed, in youth anywhere in the world. There was a war in Europe, from 1914 to 1918—a war which was the supreme accomplishment of the older European social and political order and which sent more than ten million youths to their deaths. Against the recurrence of this brilliant achievement of the older social order, the youth of Germany and of many other lands have been seeking some security. In their efforts in this direction they have done some wise things and (having been taught by their fathers) some foolish things. Mr. Lasker told the whole story. Many who have quoted from his article, including the writers of certain materials for the National Civic Federation, and many newspapers, have been careful to give their readers but half the story. This effort to keep the American public in ignorance and in prejudice is a notable experiment. If it succeeds it will probably have to be taken as proof that humanity never can really hope to escape from ignorance and prejudice. If it fails—we may in time make over our instruments of publicity.

THE SENATE INQUIRY into the "work" of the Veterans' Bureau reveals some interesting experiments in education that have been made by that branch of our federal government (so called). One of these was in connection with the training for certain of the professions. Dr. David Smith, one of the officials in charge of certain phases of this work, reported one of the diagnoses as follows: "One particularly flagrant case," said he, "was that of a young man who could be classified only as a paranoiac, or a constitutional psychopathic inferior. These types are generally classified as 'non-feasibles,' meaning that they will not respond to any vocational training. This young man was totally irresponsible, a pronounced paranoiac, but he had managed to get a 'vocational training' status and was drawing about $150 a month as a vocational training allowance." The thirty or forty reporters looked casually interested. "What was he in training for?" inquired Senator Reed. "They were seeking to make a journalist of him," replied Dr. Smith.

CLARK UNIVERSITY, with the retirement of President G. Stanley Hall, and the inauguration of President Wallace W. Atwood, undertook an interesting experiment. Discussion of social and educational questions was reduced to a minimum—in favor of more attention to questions of geography. As a result, a considerable number of the strongest members of the faculty left. This year, the freshmen class has fallen to about 45, though formerly it was usually about 90; the graduate school has fallen from an enrollment of 160 to about 75; and the tuition has been raised from $100.00 per year to $150.00 to help make up the loss of income due to these decreases in registration. (These are not official figures, but they come from observers on the ground). This effort to transform an institution from one line of work to another at the will of the president is almost if not altogether novel in our educational history. None the less, there are some who do not like the trend of affairs. Among these are the Washington alumni and the Clark University alumni of the Pacific Coast. At a recent meeting, this latter group, which includes more than twenty of the leading educators of the West, passed resolutions asking the board of trustees for the "immediate removal of the present administration and the selection of men who will be able to raise the standards of the university to their former level and to secure and hold the confidence of the entire faculty and student body." If the trustees take this resolution with any degree of seriousness, they will bring this experiment to an untimely end.



THE AMERICAN people, with some assistance from foreign lands, are making an elaborate series of tests of our vocational education for women, at Hollywood, California. According to current news reports, some thousands of girls journey annually to Hollywood, expecting to realize upon their vocational advice, or at least upon their vocational desires, with or without the help of previous advice. Statistics compiled by news reporters, on the grounds, show the following general results, (though the significance of the tests is not changed by any question as to whether these particular statistics are accurate or not):

500 out of every 1,000 never see the inside of a film studio.

10 out of every 1,000 find a precarious living as "extras," etc.

1 out of every 1,000 may turn out a successful film actress.

700 out of every 1,000, unable to remain in California, return home.

100 out of every 1,000 find positions in stores, cafeterias, etc.

100 out of every 1,000, lost in the wreckage, are never heard of again.

It is understood that these tests are to be continued indefinitely.

UNLESS all signs fail, the politicians who manipulate the civic destiny of New York City are about to undertake the most extensive experiment in public education ever devised. The details of this experiment have not been disclosed by the "scientists" who have it in charge. But the trend of events indicates that all educators in the school system are to be eliminated or subordinated, and the schools are to be turned over to the politicians. An assistant principal has been recently promoted over the heads of twenty regular principals and will become their "superior." This is generally understood to be reward for services rendered to the political machine. This is but one item in what is believed to be the general plan of this experiment. The next one, looked for shortly, may eliminate the present head of the school system in favor of a specially groomed politician-educator, who is the chief lieutenant of the machine. New York City couldn't stand the "Gary plan" in 1917, because it was too experimental. But democracy is bound to experiment. Just now the politicians are in charge of the experiment, the educators are in the background. The machinery of government in New York City is so intricate that it will probably take ten years for the people to interpose obstacles to the experiment. In that time something important ought to be discovered.

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SURVEY READING LISTS: NUMBER TWO

The New School

By Joseph K. Hart

The first of the present series of Survey Reading Lists, on Psychiatry and Mental Hygiene, prepared by Dr. Bernard Glueck, appeared in the Book Section of Survey Graphic for November 1, 1923. Early numbers of Survey Midmonthly will contain, by request, the following lists: two on Social Hygiene (books for teachers and social workers in one list, for parents and adolescents in the other) prepared by Mrs. Martha P. Falconer, Ray H. Everett, and others; one on Organizing the Rural Community, prepared by E. C. Lindeman. The Survey will welcome suggestions for additional lists which readers would find particularly useful.

THE New School is not, we must first be warned, an existent institution; at least, not to any considerable extent. It is a conception of education, a state of mind on the part of the public, and a program of teaching that disturbs many teachers. These facts determine the task of this book list.

Practically all of us have been schooled to the Old School state of mind. Now nothing seems to be more true than that the Old School state of mind and the New School state of mind belong in two different universe. The New School may use many things long used by the Old School; but there is one thing that the New School cannot use, namely, the Old School type of mind. Hence, any approach to the New School must begin with an effort to escape from the mind of the Old School. This calls for the setting up of definite contrasts between the social and psychological supports of these two states of mind.

The best book with which to begin this development of distinctions is probably still Dewey's original statement of the case, his School and Society. Though it was first published nearly thirty years ago, few people, even now, can read it without feeling something of the thrill it brought to pioneering minds when New Schools were new. If the reader learns from this book that the school does not exist for its own sake or its own prestige but for the service it can render to the social community, he may go on to the next; if he does not learn this, he must go back and read the book over. There is no use going on until after this lesson has been learned.

What this changed conception of the school should mean for both education and society can best be followed up in Dewey's most complete presentation of his educational philosophy, his Democracy and Education. This book is, mostly, hard reading. But at that, it is not as hard as the task of realizing its meanings in actual life and institutions.

Of course, the inside of the school must be made over, if we are to have a New School. That is to say, the minds of the children and of the teachers must be set free; teachers and children, alike, must be reconciled to the use of their own judgments. This means that the New School must have a new psychology. James started this; and his Talks to Teachers is still one of the best introductory books in the field. Colvin's The Learning Process is a more recent, more comprehensive guide. The New School is not over-impressed with the use of the so-called "intelligence tests"; it is certainly not basing its work upon a psychology that accepts the tests as anything final.

The New School is interested in a psychology that still believes in Mind. Hence, while it does not ignore the contributions of Behaviorism, it does not accept Behaviorism as the final word, either. It finds in the newer analytic psychology much of criticism and help. But it does not care to lose itself in the boundless seas of Freudianism. It can get all the help it needs, momentarily, at least, from Miller's The New Psychology and the Teacher. An adequate social psychology of education remains to be written.

But the New School finds that it is difficult to break the grip of the old rigid curriculum and iron-clad methods on the teacher. Parkhurst's Education on the Dalton Laboratory Plan offers probably the best solution to this persistent problem. Miss Parkhurst's ideas have won large acceptance in England and they will be cumulatively acceptable here, to-morrow.

Finally, if we want to know where and when these various innovations have been practiced and tested, we can find a summary in the Deweys' (John and Evelyn) Schools of Tomorrow, in which the efforts of a number of educational pioneers are set forth both descriptively and critically.

If any one should object that this list leaves out of account practically all that has been written in the last five years, the reply is found in the first paragraph of this discussion. The last half decade has been almost wholly concerned with details and extensions: the constructive concepts upon which the New School is based were written into our educational literature two or three decades ago. Details and extensions are important; but no great program was ever made of these, alone. Back of them must be the concepts and the constructive thinking that alone can give details significance. For most of this constructive thinking that we need today, we must go back of these troubled last five years—to great minds that could see life steadily and see it whole.

Mr. Hart Recommends

THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, *by John Dewey. The University of Chicago Press. Price $1.35 postpaid of The Survey.*

DEMOCRACY AND EDUCATION, *by John Dewey. The Macmillan Co. 1916. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

TALKS TO TEACHERS, *by William James. Henry Holt. 1900. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE LEARNING PROCESS, *by Stephen Colvin. 1911. Macmillan Co. Price $1.90 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE NEW PSYCHOLOGY AND THE TEACHER, *by H. Crichton Miller. 1922. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

EDUCATION ON THE DALTON PLAN, *by Helen Parkhurst. 1922. E. P. Dutton and Co. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

SCHOOLS OF TOMORROW, *by John Dewey and Evelyn Dewey. 1915. E. P. Dutton and Co. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Management of Human Behavior

IN the brief list of readings which we suggested in The Survey for November 1, 1923, the attempt was made to sketch the introductory steps by which the reader could orient himself in the elements of psychiatry. We spoke then of the fundamental issues which still divide those who are trying to interpret personality and its problems into opposing groups between which no balance of authority has yet been struck. As soon as one passes beyond the threshold of the subject he must be impressed with the great variety of ways in which students from various fields of scientific exploration—and even from the same field—are still approaching those problems. Any shelf of current books on psychiatric subjects will serve for illustration: the eight which are now before us would convince any open-minded reader that the understanding and management of human behavior still present a host of open questions. We must still look forward to a critical synthesis of the knowledge which, bit by bit, we have acquired.

Abnormal Behavior, by Dr. Sands and Miss Blanchard, is deliberately designed for beginners in the field of human behavior. It sets forth in a clear and orderly fashion the fairly generally accepted current thinking on the subject of anomalies and disorders of behavior. The introductory chapters particularly should give the reader a well digested summary of current concepts concerning the nature of man. The text is extensively illustrated throughout by well chosen, brief case histories and a guide to more extensive reading is furnished by helpful bibliographies after each chapter.

On the basis of extremely interesting documents in the form of case histories and self-revelations through letters and other biographical material, Professor Thomas develops in his study of The Maladjusted Girl his thesis of the four fundamental wishes which condition human behavior and which serve as appeals to human responsiveness: the desire for new experience; the desire for security; the desire for response; and the desire for recognition. We have had occasion elsewhere to express our accord with this manner of translating into human values the supposedly instinctive dispositions of man, and Professor Thomas' present elaboration of this thesis ought to be a very stimulating contribution to students of human behavior. The manner in which Professor Thomas handles the problems of the conditioning influence of life among one's fellows upon behavior is decidedly helpful. The book cannot fail to advance our thinking and to humanize our methods with respect to the problem of maladjustment and misconduct among girls. Of no inconsiderable value in the same direction is Mrs. Dummer's interesting and thoughtful foreword to the book. We hope that Mrs. Dummer will continue her interest in this field and will make possible through her generosity further contributions.

Dr. Beatrice M. Hinkle needs no introduction to American students of psychoanalysis. As the foremost American interpreter of the Jungian school of psychoanalysis and as an active practitioner in this field everything that she has to say on the subject ought to be of interest to the student of human behavior. There is not space here to do thoroughgoing justice to this important book, but outstanding features include the thesis that man's great conflict lies between his collective or herd nature and his driving impulse towards individuation; the viewing of the Freudian concept of repression as a necessary psycho-biological mechanism rather than as an exclusive causal agent; the acceptance and elaboration of the Jungian concept of the "collective unconscious"; and the elaboration of the thesis of the prospective function and aim of the dream and its value in mental development.

The more practical second part of the book deals in an interesting and convincing manner with Jung's and the author's attempts to delineate and interpret the two fundamental psychological types, the introvert and extravert, the relation of this type distinction to sex distinction, to creative art and personal development. The case material in this part of the book is presented in a very interesting manner, and the book closes with a thought-provoking chapter on the significance of psycho-analysis for the spiritual life and man's attitude towards the infinite.

The Hope of the Variant is an honest, simply told account of the work which Dr. Gehring has been carrying on for many years in the re-adjustment of nervous and unhappy people. The author does not attempt any strict formulation of a theoretical or practical nature, and yet the reader gains a feeling that Dr. Gehring, in his way, knows what he is about. The book reflects a keen appreciation of the needs of the so-called variant and in its consistently optimistic note must carry a tremendous deal of hope.

In this record of personal performances, there is also reflected, inescapably, a fairly comprehensive picture of the man back of the job, and as is the case always in connection with psycho-therapy, it is the man more than the method which determines the results. The book deserves a careful reading from those interested in the alleviation of nervous maladies.

One thing can be said with certainty about the little book of Dr. Williams on Dreads and Besetting Fears—that it is refreshingly individualistic. Without the unquestioning reiteration of the word of this or that master which charac-

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ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR, *by Irving J. Sands and Phyllis Blanchard. Moffat, Yard & Co. 482 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE UNADJUSTED GIRL, *by William I. Thomas. Criminal Science Monograph No. 4. Little, Brown & Co. 261 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE RECREATING OF THE INDIVIDUAL, *by Beatrice M. Hinkle. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 463 pp. Price $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE HOPE OF THE VARIANT, *by John G. Gehring. Charles Scribner's Sons. 252 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

DREADS AND BESETTING FEARS, *by Tom A. Williams. Little, Brown & Co. 217 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE MISUSE OF MIND, *by Karin Stephen. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 107 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

STUDIES IN PSYCHOANALYSIS, *by Charles Baudouin. Dodd, Mead & Co. 508 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE BIRTH OF PSYCHE, *by Charles Baudouin. E. P. Dutton & Co. 211 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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terizes so much of the modern literature on psychology, the author sets forth in a simple and telling way his own views on this subject of fears and what "he" has been able to do for their alleviation. The free and wholly unconcerned use of the personal pronoun does not in the least detract from the rich mine of practical wisdom which this little book contains, and one forgets one's disagreement with the author's theories of causation and therapy in the enjoyment of the racy and individualistic style of presentation. Moreover, the book is going to help a lot of people overcome their neurotic difficulties, whatever else it may do.

Karin Stephen contributes an exceedingly helpful presentation in the English language of the philosophy of Bergson and of the reasons for the difficulty in understanding this French wizard's contribution to human thought. The book ought to be of inestimable help to anyone desirous to become acquainted with the philosophy of Bergson—an indispensable prerequisite, by the way, to a thorough-going understanding of some of the most fundamental contributions of the psychoanalytic school.

The poet-psychologist Baudouin is known to English readers through his elaborate exploitation of the simple theory of autosuggestion of the Nancy apothecary, Coué, in his book Suggestion and Autosuggestion. In Studies in Psychoanalysis he attempts, on the basis of twenty-seven case histories of patients whom he has treated at Geneva, to bring about the impossible mating of suggestion and psycho-analysis. The book could have been written only by one who misunderstands the real nature of psycho-analysis. The autobiographical sketches of his own childhood in The Birth of Psyche are much more interesting reading and show the author in an aspect quite different from that of propagandist of the age-old theory of suggestion.

BERNARD GLUECK, M.D.

The Kingdom of Health

THE EVOLUTION AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MODERN HEALTH CAMPAIGN, *by C.-E. A. Winslow. Yale University Press. 65 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

"A Cure for Cultism," "In Praise of Science," "History and Hope." Such might be the titles for these sixty-five pages of appreciation of the life-savers of many centuries. Such a combination of precision in stating the sequence of facts, with sympathetic understanding of the elements and forces of past progress, and simplicity and vision in picturing the present and future, has probably never been brought to bear upon the story of that element in the career of human society in which later critics will see the best side of the past hundred years of Europe and America. If one has the least spark of critical judgment, the relation of cause and effect as sketched by Professor Winslow will prove convincing—even in the face of those who clamor against vivisection, vaccination, isolation, and specific curative therapy.

One can hardly be counted among the reasonably educated if he lacks acquaintance with the notable leaders here described, or with these steps in social advance—easy as it is to take them for granted and to forget that they are based on some of the most precious triumphs of the human mind.

How wise and necessary is Winslow's own warning that nowadays, and in the stage of health protection we have but recently attained, "the fight must be won, not by the construction of public works, but by the conduct of individual life." "The kingdom of health, like the Kingdom of God, is within you."

We cannot refrain from protesting mildly against the suggestion that state subsidies and "a wholly new relation between physician and patient" will solve the problem of health service for all, through the periodic medical supervision of each life based on thorough diagnosis. Nor can we believe that it will be true for a long time to come "that the average individual will not resort to his physician until he experiences compelling symptoms of disease if the incurring of an immediate financial obligation is specifically involved."

Experience is gathering to show that a change in the relationship between physician and patient is rapidly occurring, and there is abundant evidence now that the health physician, a private practitioner, is to be a successful specialist as much valued and as well paid as any other expert in medical service. The problem lies rather in the education of the laity to place as much confidence in the capacity of physicians to lead them to health as they have given to the doctor when he is faced with desperate sickness. The creation of government machinery will follow if necessary, but can hardly lead in providing for the periodic medical examination of presumably healthy persons.

We can all join with Winslow in looking so eagerly to early success against pneumonia, diphtheria, measles and scarlet fever. Shall we not hope also that malaria, hookworm infection, mental disease, disorders of nutrition, alcoholic and drug addiction will in their turn fall before social and individual attack?

HAVEN EMERSON, M.D.

But What of To-morrow?

WOMEN AND THE LABOR MOVEMENT, *by Alice Henry. George H. Doran Co. 241 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is a useful volume, written in clear, simple, dignified English and packed with facts that have been carefully sifted. It offers much valuable knowledge for new voters and for wage-earners newly interested in the Labor Movement. It brings together in compact, well-ordered form much significant material hitherto scattered in fugitive publications. It deserves a place on The Workers' Book-Shelf.

The author's breadth of social outlook is doubtless attributable to her youth spent in Australasia, and to her continuous study of industrial evolution in England, which explains her sympathetic attitude toward minimum wage legislation limited in the United States to women. Miss Henry points out that in Australia where it originated, and in England where, especially since the war, it has been extended to a range of industries unparalleled elsewhere, it applies to both men and women. But she explains clearly that this difference is because of the idiosyncrasies of our written constitution. The author throws much light also upon the modifications adopted in Canada where minimum wage legislation is in force in every province except New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. The spread of minimum wage laws throughout Canada, beginning in the Province of Alberta as recently as 1917, has been more rapid than anywhere else, though nowhere is so vast a number of men and women yet benefited by it as in England.

A novel feature of the work is Miss Henry's careful treatment of the hardships suffered by colored women wage-earners called into industry by the war and remaining per-

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manently. An important early discovery in the course of this process was their greater efficiency under fore-women of their own race than under white men. Many failures of new and unskilled women recruits in industry are doubtless traceable to blundering management which overlooks this fairly obvious item of personnel administration.

The important international activities of the National Women's Trade Union League are admirably set forth and well interpreted in relation to the future.

In regard to them and to the mass entrance of women into industry in the United States during the first quarter of this century, as in the treatment of the colored women workers, Women and the Labor Movement is eminently modern. Yet it must be taken as finally dated as of the first quarter of the year 1923. The date is set by a footnote on page 165, announcing the adverse decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the District of Columbia minimum wage case. That shattering, epoch-making decision places Woman and the Labor Movement decisively as a work of history, written with unusual care and fairness.

In the shadow of that decision, women wage-earners, within or without the Labor Movement, can reasonably expect no adequate, thorough-going improvement in their industrial condition until they are ably represented by experienced women—wage-earners like themselves—in Congress and in the legislatures; and until women judges in the higher courts cease to be exceptional phenomena.

Judge Florence Allen of the Supreme Court of Ohio and Judge Bartelme of the Circuit Court of Illinois foretell a future of greater enlightenment and correspondingly sounder interpretation of the law applied to men, women, and children in industry—but of this there is no hint in this otherwise modern work. The ultra-brief footnote reference to the Sutherland decision and the omission of all mention of the profound impression produced by it upon women wage-earners, judges, lawyers, economists, and reformers suggests that the book may have been already in press so that nothing more was possible. In any case, Miss Henry has made a contribution of permanent value to our meager literature of her subject.

The new labor banks of which seven in different cities are inviting women as stockholders and depositors, the new clinics established by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the garment trades and by other unions more recently, the new summer schools in country places, the cooperative camps for summer and week-ends, all these might well have been played up as important features of labor self-government. They are stimulating examples of labor control of labor's human interests. They are harbingers of the American era of cooperation to be developed in numberless varied forms by wage-earners trained by union to think and act together successfully for their own ends. They may, perhaps, have been thought worthy of a volume for themselves alone.

FLORENCE KELLEY

Prohibition à la Horatio Alger

PROHIBITION INSIDE OUT, *by Roy A. Haynes. Doubleday, Page & Co. 308 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROHIBITION Commissioner Roy A. Haynes has given a distinctively Haynes point of view in his book entitled Prohibition Inside Out. The Haynes view is one of buoyant optimism. It takes an optimist to write a happy story about Prohibition Enforcement and Mr. Haynes has been successful in doing it.

He has told of the hunt through woods and mountains for illicit stills and of the battles with moonshiners; of the contest of wits between the incorruptible prohibition agents and the bribe-carrying bootleggers, and of the rum-smuggling on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and along the Canadian border. He has also told of the bringing to justice of the big violators.

According to his version, the average prohibition agent is as brave and honorable as an Horatio Alger hero. The violators of the Prohibition Act are outlaws, criminals, and desperadoes. In approved fashion the hero wins over the villain; the righteous triumphs over the wicked. All through the book are expressions of optimism; enforcement is growing better and better. According to Mr. Haynes, whiskey is no longer coming out of distilleries. Industrial grain alcohol is not now being poured into the channels of the illicit business. The importation and exportation under permit for ultimate illicit purposes has been almost ended. Smuggling has been reduced to a small item in the business. The last stronghold of the liquor forces now lies in the small illicit stills hidden in the mountains or in the cellars or the kitchens of small operators. The breweries have been forced to close their doors except in rare instances, and the United States, with the will of the American people and the assistance of the Prohibition Enforcement Unit, is actually going dry.

Reading Mr. Haynes' book is exactly like listening to one of his speeches. It is wonderfully cheering, but when compared with actual conditions it is utterly unreal. The principal difficulty lies in the fact that the commissioner has purported to give an inside story of prohibition. As a matter of fact practically every thing he has written about is hearsay. He has culled his story from his agents' reports and has carefully underemphasized or completely overlooked all of the failures of the Enforcement Bureau and its mistakes. In doing so he has disregarded his richest material for a real book and has at the same time made his present book a story, not of prohibition enforcement as it really is, but as Mr. Haynes would like others to think it is.

I might suggest that if Mr. Haynes were going to write the real inside story of prohibition based upon first hand knowledge he could start with the story of the appointment of his first state directors in Illinois, New York, Pennsylvania, and in some of the other large eastern states, telling us the considerations that entered into those appointments, and follow this up with the intimate story of the manner in which his state directors became corrupted and issued permits for the withdrawal of whiskey and alcohol in tremendous quantities. He could take the New York office alone and give his experiences with the first two or three directors that he chose for this most important post. In overlooking these matters, Mr. Haynes missed the most spectacular features of prohibition enforcement under his administration. He might follow this up by pointing out how conditions changed when the regulations governing permits issued by state directors, plus the transmutation of most of the whiskey into water, had limited fraudulent withdrawals of whiskey from the bonded warehouses. Then he could point out the development of the illicit trade in industrial grain alcohol which assumed enormous proportions and he could also tell us of the manner in which basic permits were issued by his own office and the difficulties encountered in

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revoking them, and he could add a most absorbing chapter upon the principles governing the granting of permits to breweries and the reasons why fines imposed for manufacturing illegal beer were so frequently compromised for a tithe of the original sum imposed and the breweries permitted to continue business.

Instead of discussing these matters, Mr. Haynes writes almost entirely of those concerning which his department has no very direct responsibility. Illicit stills do not operate under prohibition permits; neither do smugglers, yet these features of the liquor business occupy the major portion of the book. When Mr. Haynes tells the story of the preventive features of the prohibition law, together with the story of the difficulties he has had with the personnel of his force, then we will be ready to grant that he has written a book on Prohibition Inside Out, but his present book is misnamed. It should be called Prohibition from the Outside In. T. HENRY WALNUT

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

CHRISTIANITY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE, *by Charles A. Ellwood. Macmillan Co. 220 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

PROFESSOR ELLWOOD'S fundamental thought is that social science must unite with religion in the redeeming of mankind, and on the other hand religion must welcome and utilize the findings of social science in carrying out its redemptive plan. The combination of the two he would hold to be irresistible. "Science is the one most living thing in our world and presents the best hope of continuing human progress if it can be synthesized with our humanitarian aspirations." How will this synthesis be brought about and what means will it use? First, says Ellwood, develop in our youth an efficient social imagination. Then cultivate right emotional attitudes; create new patterns for social behavior; teach the repudiating of force and selfishness as the basis of human relations, and substitute for it identification of men with their fellow men in thought and feeling; equalize social opportunities, which means developing the spirit of trusteeship and the contributive rather than the possessive attitude toward life. Ellwood, of course, recognizes that none of these things can be accomplished without systematic education and training. But in addition to trying to suffuse our secular education with a new social spirit which would carry it to the plane of the ideal and would make it develop new emotional values, he urges the need for broad religious education which will produce social intelligence, serious-mindedness, loyalty to ideal social values and aggressiveness in social righteousness. Such education he would design not only for spiritual leadership but also for the laity. While it is possible to disagree on such points as the absoluteness and universality of moral principles and the assertion that the whole tradition or custom of primitive society was religious, yet the substance and the spirit of the book are sound. It is an interesting translation of current sociology into the service of progressive religious education. The tone is distinctly conservative and constantly reminds the reader of the difficulty of the job even while holding it theoretically possible. ARTHUR J. TODD

SOCIAL EFFICIENCY—INDIA'S GREATEST NEED, by *S. N. Pherwani. Introduction by Patrick Geddes. Modern Publishing Co., Bombay.*

MANY influences, English and American, all of the best, are discernible in this interesting restatement of the elements of social efficiency and the elaboration of its meaning in terms of social progress in India. To Professor Geddes, with whom he is associated in the department of sociology and civics in the University of Bombay, the author evidently owes his effective use of the diagrammatic method and also the inclusiveness of his interest in social facts and tendencies, which goes far beyond that of the efficiency engineers who suggested to him his special field of study. In the more detailed working out of the author's theory, the place given to education is especially large—and this notwithstanding the fact that, as he shows by many telling facts and illustrations, in India the problem of social efficiency is necessarily still so largely one of the satisfaction of elementary wants. His approach to problems such as these, free as it is from political or economic party bias, is helpful and educational. He stresses, as most vital for India in particular, the need for effective cooperation and assimilation of different elements in the population. He suggests "a revival of the ancient Ashram of Vanaprasth, the dedication of the third quarter of one's life to civic and social effort." B. L.

THE COMMUNITY NEWSPAPER, *by Emerson P. Harris and Florence Harris. D. Appleton and Co. 378 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE COUNTRY NEWSPAPER, *by Millard VanMarter Atwood. A. C. McClurg and Co. 137 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"THE PUBLISHING BUSINESS consists essentially of turning ideas into service and service into dollars." This Harris variant of an old definition seems rather less colorful, if more up-to-date in terminology, than the classic version: buying white paper cheap and selling inked paper dear. The book is, in the large, an exposition of the interesting possibilities which might result from the application of intelligence and some conception of the community as an entity to the job of making a small-town newspaper pay. But the book suggests the projection of a theory rather than the distillation of experience in this particular field, and the conception of the community is colored largely by "advertising psychology." "As cold weather approaches," the authors remark, "an item may suggest sending cast-off clothing to the charity society." Mr. Atwood's book reeks of the printing office. It is sentimental more often than racy, and it does not rise much above the presentation of a present-day situation, but it does carry the feel of country journalism. The two books complement each other nicely: before trying out Mr. Harris' plans one would do well to reflect on the village resistance and inertia of which Professor Atwood reminds his readers. Both books fall short of penetrating pioneer thinking on the social possibilities of the country newspaper. G. S.

BEAUTY IN RELIGION, *by A. Maude Royden. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 155 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE MOST BRILLIANT woman preacher of our times brings us in this brief volume of addresses some of her most characteristic thinking, the sort of thinking that many of us need to make our own. For caught as we are in the swirl of things, battling constantly in the great battle for human betterment we are often likely to forget that there is such a thing as beauty in the world and that such beauty is an expression of God. She sees with clear eyes amid the maze of things and what is more important she helps us to see. "And of all the things for which we thank God today surely the dearest and most precious is just that power of looking through the fogs and mists of time to where they are blown aside to show us the towers of the heavenly city. There is no sense we would not rather lose. That is what Wordsworth meant when he thanked God most of all for the continual good of the sense of beauty, that spur to us which makes impossible the calm of despair. When we are most convinced by suffering and disappointment that God is not, beauty comes and forbids us to be atheists." One goes back to his work with new vigor after a book like this. W. E. BROOKS

FIFTY YEARS, *by William Lawrence. Houghton Mifflin Co. 97 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IN THIS little book of ninety-seven pages is to be found the apologia pro sua vita of the venerable Bishop of Massachusetts. He has lived in a great time, "a time of mid-sea and great things." He has seen changes, great changes, in life and thought, and he has not been dismayed by these changes. And the reason is that for him "The Faith once delivered to the Saints is not a tightly packed parcel, but a living vigorous Body with soul and spiritual powers." In the book he presents his reaction to the changes as they have come and the vital faith which has been his as in loyalty to that Truth he has gone for-

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ward, not as a lone defender of a beleaguered fortress but a valiant soldier in the van of a triumphant host. It is the sort of a book worth putting into the hands of the boy or girl who thinks, for it not only shows how one man has won through, but how others may win to that religion "which is not first a creed but a personal communion of God and man."

W. E. BROOKS

BIRTH CONTROL, WHAT IS IT? *by Lydia Allen DeVilbiss. Small, Maynard Co. 186 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

MUCH SOUND and fury have characterized the battle between the opponents and proponents of birth control. Dr. De Vilbiss's book—"wise and temperate" as Dr. Adolf Meyer characterizes it in the foreword which he has written—should fill a real place in blocking out the problem and some of the social considerations which must be considered in relation to it. The chapter headings—ranging from Definition through History, Opposition, Increase in Populations, Public Health, The Mentally Deficient and Federal and State Laws, indicate the range of material which the author has brought together on this subject. Inevitably there will be wide disagreement with one or another of her arguments and deductions but the book itself is an earnest of that wider professional interest and study challenged by the conditions which she recites, and hitherto unattained in this country because of prejudice, prudery and legal restrictions. M. R.

THE RELIGIOUS EDUCATION OF PROTESTANTS IN AN AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH, *by Walter S. Athern and others. George H. Doran Co. 580 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

MOST OF US who have anything to do with religious education have realized that nothing is so inadequately cared for in America today as this. Here in the first volume of the Indiana Survey of Religious Education made under the direction of the dean of the school of Religious Education and Social Service in Boston University (as a project of the Committee on Social and Religious Surveys. See page 334) we have some startling facts which will give definiteness to that belief and will be stones in the sling of those who battle against the giant of spiritual illiteracy. It includes within its scope child accounting, buildings and equipment, finance, organization and administration of religious education in the local church, Boy Scouts and other community agencies, teachers and supervision of teaching, denominational and interdenominational promotion of religious education. Indiana is enough like most northern states so that the facts discovered there through this survey may be largely true of other places. It is the sort of careful study that will aid vitally in the forming of a more adequate program. W. E. BROOKS

THE BOOK OF SPORTS AND GAMES, *by Walter Camp. T. Y. Crowell Co. 414 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"THE DAILY DOZEN" was only a substitute. Here is the real thing. All out-of-doors with its seasonal changes invites you to play ball, pitch your tent, paddle your own canoe, or cut a figure eight. The rules are simple enough. The beginner need feel no hesitancy. His equipment and terms are clearly explained and an excellent coach gives him practical suggestions. There is pleasure too, in knowing how the game originated, developed, was organized perhaps, and what enthusiasts it has produced. And to be certain of one's etiquette is always gratifying. But the book is more than a collection of authoritative essays. It is a convincing appeal for wholesome recreation in fresh air and sunshine. Significance is attached not to the exhibition aspect of sport but rather to the satisfactions of the individual player. Fair play refreshes the spirit as well as the body. J. H. O.

THE GOSPEL OF FELLOWSHIP, *by the Right Rev. Charles D. Williams, D.D., late Bishop of Michigan. Delivered by the Rev. Samuel S. Marquis. Fleming H. Revell Co. 213 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE Cole lectures at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee, are by the terms of their gift "restricted in scope to a defense and advocacy of the Christian religion." Bishop Williams in the lectures for 1923 does not find the restriction incompatible with a liberal and progressive social philosophy. The Bishop died during the preparation of these lectures; the first four, on the Nature of Fellowship, Fellowship between Races, Fellowship between Nations, and Fellowship in Industry, stand as he wrote them. The Rev. S. S. Marquis, who delivered the series, compiled the remaining two of the six from Bishop Williams' material. M. W. H.

MY DISILLUSIONMENT IN RUSSIA, *by Emma Goldman. Doubleday, Page and Co. 242 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE book is pretty good reading—a personal record from Russia, of even ordinary vividness, could hardly fail to be. And many people may be interested to know that Emma Goldman has denounced the Bolsheviki. But the story of disillusionment, per se, is usually of more interest to the teller than to any one else, and the cold-blooded obvious logic of the case is apt to be that illusions are risky things in the first place. M. W. H.

A NEW CONSTITUTION FOR A NEW AMERICA, *by William MacDonald. B. W. Huebsch Co. 260 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A STEP-BY-STEP analysis of the constitution, starting from the assumption that as it stands it is not an adequate basis of twentieth-century government and working toward the conclusion that amendment alone cannot bring about the fundamental changes that are needed, but rather a radical revision plus the possibility of further amendment. A sober uncontentious book, for neither the scholar nor the man-in-the-street, but for the layman, somewhere between the two, who likes an evening now and then of plain quiet thinking. M. W. H.

AN AMERICAN LOOKS AT HIS WORLD, *by Glenn Frank. The University of Delaware Press. 364 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

A MISCELLANY of occasional essays and lectures by the editor of the Century Magazine. Mr. Frank's essay style is interesting without being tempting, and this book of comment on the times is likeable for its air of sound sane thoughtfulness and rightness, rather than as the expression of a personality. Perhaps this, after a certain amount of the self-exploitation of the typical intimate essayist, is refreshing in a way of its own. M. W. H.

Other Books Received

JEALOUSY; ENEMIES; THE LAW OF THE SAVAGE, *by Mikhail Artzybasheff. Boni & Liveright. 320 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

CAPTURES, *by John Galsworthy. Charles Scribner's Sons. 305 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

WORKING THROUGH AT LINCOLN HIGH, *by Joseph Gollomb. Macmillan Co. 228 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*

LABORATORY CHEMISTRY FOR GIRLS, *by Agnes F. Jacques. D. C. Heath & Co. 244 pp. Price $1.48 postpaid of The Survey.*

BILLY BARNCOAT, *by Greville MacDonald. George Allen & Unwin, Ltd. 230 pp. Price $2.04 postpaid of The Survey.*

EVERYBODY'S BUSINESS, *by Floyd W. Parsons. Doubleday, Page & Co. 503 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SOCIAL LIFE IN ANCIENT EGYPT, *by W. M. Flanders Petrie. Houghton Mifflin Co. 210 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

FRANCOIS COLLLARD, *by Edward Shillito. George H. Doran Co. 235 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

STORIES OF THE FIRST AMERICAN ANIMALS, *by George Langford. Boni & Liveright. 242 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE CALL OF THE ROAD, *by Edouard Estaunie (a translation from the French). Boni & Liveright. 346 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

CROATAN, *by Mary Johnston. Little, Brown & Co. 298 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE GOVERNMENT OF LOWER MERION TOWNSHIP, PENNSYLVANIA, *a report of a survey by the Bureau of Municipal Research of Philadelphia. Bureau of Municipal Research. 370 pp.*

THE OLDER UNIVERSITIES OF ENGLAND—OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE, *by Albert Mansbridge. Houghton Mifflin Co. 308 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE VIGIL OF HOPE, *by F. A. MacLeod. Longmans Green & Co. 77 pp. Price $1.25 postpaid of The Survey.*

LUTHER NICHOLS, *by Mary S. Watts. Macmillan Co. 362 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AS THEY ARE, FRENCH POLITICAL PORTRAITS, *by Winifred Katzin. Alfred A. Knopf. 217 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MASQUERADE, *by Ben Ray Redman. Robert M. McBride & Co. 53 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MEMORIES OF THE RUSSIAN COURT, *by Anna Viroubova. Macmillan Co. 400 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE VISION AND THE WISE WOMEN, *by Julie Kenly. Richard G. Badger, Boston. 279 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SHADOW OR SUBSTANCE, SOCIALISM OR INDIVIDUALISM? *by William Breson Hill. Alba Co., St. Louis. 107 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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COMMUNICATIONS

I, Who Am Toomer

TO THE EDITOR: I assume that The Survey demands of those who contribute to it an accuracy of social fact. Doubtless therefore a note concerning an error in the November Book Supplement will be acceptable to you.

I refer to the review, Doors Opened Southward. Herein, your writer states that Holiday and Cane issue from the same person, Waldo Frank. This is an error, for Frank and Toomer are distinctly separate, as I, who am Toomer, can confidently testify. I do not take it amiss that Mr. Lasker is unacquainted with the younger organs of native literary expression, or that he missed the critical writings that the two books in question have given rise to, particularly my own critique of Holiday and the biographical sketch of me, in the October Dial. Nor is it strange that a temperamental difference in the two works escaped him, and thus left his assumption uncontested. But I do find it odd that Frank's foreword to Cane (could an artist of Frank's standing thus write about himself?) stimulated no deeper questioning. And I regret that Mr. Lasker failed to avail himself of several very easy and innocent means to factual accuracy. Boni and Liveright, or better, any magazine in which either Frank or myself have appeared, would have been glad to give him the correct information. And I believe that this would have added to the possibilities of his article.

I should like to add that I have a very real appreciation of Mr. Lasker's sensitivity to the beauty, to the approach, and to the reality of these two books. And I am also glad for The Survey's reception of such material. JEAN TOOMER

New York

Suppositive Formulae?

TO THE EDITOR: It is to be regretted that The Survey should select as advisors to its readers those who are endorsers of fads. For example, in the autumn book supplement you seek to have presented a list of "the half-dozen books which . . . would serve best to start a reader on the road to some understanding" of how to prevent juvenile delinquency; and for a referee to select that list you choose one who turns away from scientific psychology in favor of the cult of "psychoanalysts." As a result, at least 50 per cent of the books recommended are sectarian—books written apparently not to support scientific truth but to bolster up a frangible theory.

It would seem that if one wished to learn the causes of juvenile delinquency he could do so better by studying facts than by debating any theory which by its very nature requires a forced conformation of any explanation of facts to *a priori* postulates; better to study conclusions based on deductive reasoning than to occupy one's self with suppositive formulae.

A. D. BUSH (M.D.)

Department of Pharmacology, Emory University, Georgia

THE HEALTH EDITOR COMMENTS

WHETHER Dr. Bush has been hypnotized by terms or is as thoroughly well informed as his criticism implies, there is in his comments enough of apparent sincerity to warrant editorial reply.

Psychoanalysis is an entirely correct and accurately descriptive term used to define the process by which a psychiatrist attempts to discover, with the patient's help and for the patient's benefit, the events of the recent or remote past which have led to existing present disturbance of behavior or of mental performance. Psychoanalysis is no more a fad than the process of counting the red blood cells and estimating the hemoglobin to determine the kind and degree of anemia. As a thorough student and thoughtful, critical teacher of the causes and means of preventing juvenile delinquency, The Survey's adviser, Dr. Glueck, is respected and trusted by his colleagues in the practice of medicine, and by the officers of courts and agencies for protection of children, who have seen the results of scientific approach to this problem.

A critical sense is expected of those who study or practice psychiatry and what is referred to perhaps by accident in Dr. Bush's letter as sectarianism is no more than an expression of opinions by those writers who are enthusiasts and specialists in the application of a new and still undeveloped resource in the diagnosis and treatment of disease.

To those accustomed to consider as facts only the measurable phenomena of material bodies, it may seem that psychoanalysis reveals none and deals with phantasy and imagery, but a little brief contact with practical experience among delinquent children would, we are sure, convince the most rigid worshipper of material things, that the power of ambition, jealousy, restraint, temptation, desires, emotions, to determine the manner of life and conduct, is a very real fact.

We believe the half-dozen books referred to will bring light into the dark places of the minds of those who will open wide the windows of their own perception and thought. H. E.

Indiana's Insane Again

TO THE EDITOR: I read with a great deal of interest the article, in the September 15th issue of The Survey, on Indiana's Insanity, by Paul L. Benjamin. Mr. Benjamin talked to me about the article before it was written and was kind enough to supply me with a copy of it before its publication. There is one point in the article as printed to which I wish to call your attention. The part in italics on page 625, contains the following statement: "If your home is outside Indiana there are no facilities for furnishing transportation to your home when and if it is found." May I call your attention to the fact that Indiana has a deportation law, a copy of which is enclosed. You will note that there is provision in our law for deportation of non-resident insane, epileptic, feebleminded and poor persons. I am giving this information with a feeling that you will want to correct any error that has been made.

J. A. BROWN

Secretary, Board of State Charities
Indianapolis, Ind.

MR. BENJAMIN REPLIES

I FIND, upon investigating the matter further, that the Board of State Charities will furnish transportation for a non-resident, dependent person who has been adjudged insane. They insist, however, that the person must have been adjudged insane through the proper channels before they will furnish such transportation.

The state board also informs us that where necessary an attendant will be furnished to accompany the patient. The person will be sent with the consent of and to the custody of the State Board of Charities in the state where the person is a regular resident.

Mr. Brown has therefore rightly challenged the statement that "If your home is outside Indiana there are no facilities for furnishing transportation to your home when and if it is found."

I wish, however, that he had at the same time commented upon the serious situation which does exist in this state—on the fact that hundreds of insane persons, every year, are thrown into county jails; that 120 people in Marion County afflicted with a mental disease have been thrown into our county jail since January 1 of this year; that the state legislature has pursued a niggardly policy in providing for adequate care of the insane; that there is no public psychopathic hospital in the state; that when the article was published there was only one social worker attached to a state hospital for the insane; that there is great need for mental clinics.

Indianapolis, Ind. PAUL L. BENJAMIN

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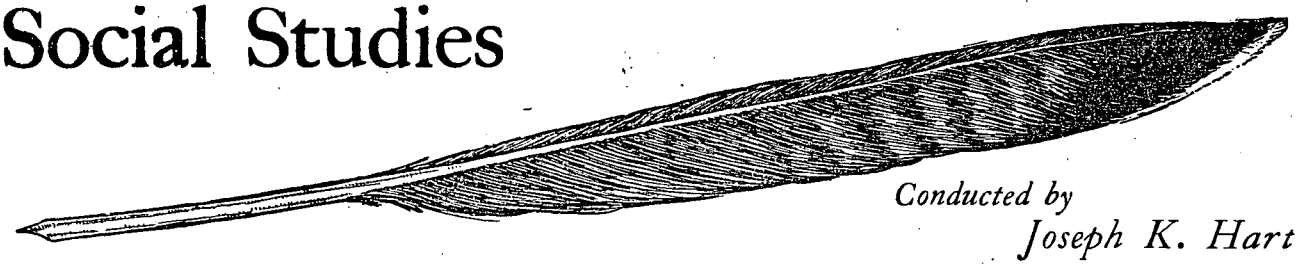
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

The Invisible Strength of the Group

AT Thanksgiving and Christmas times groups get together, especially the more primitive groups, such as families. These gatherings are not always complete. Frequently some one who belongs fails to appear. Then, if the group has any real entity of being, the absent one is "missed" far beyond his real merits as an individual. He is talked about and his absence is deplored to an extent that, sometimes, makes others almost wish they, too, had stayed away: their importance seems to have been diminished by their being present. Is the absent one as important as all this seems to imply?

On the contrary the fact of his being missed has but slight relationship to his actual importance. The least important member would be missed at such a time. The group may feel, in its naivete, that all its regret is for the missing one, alone. But we, who look on from the outside, can see that what they really miss is not that one, only, but something more which his absence keeps away, which the absence of any one of their number would keep away.

We should be making a mistake if we were to assume that any group is largely aware of the invisible elements that play through its life and history. On most occasions we all act without full prevision of our acts, their motivations or their meanings; and in the midst of group activities individuals are least of all sophisticated. None the less, we shall be safe in assuming that in the somewhat vague but still very real backgrounds of the awareness of the group, the absent member not only is himself away, but his absence keeps the group from feeling that sense of wholeness or "allness" which is so essential to happiness in a time of feasting or strength in a time of crisis. If the absent one were present all would be present, the group would be intact, the "whole" would be there. With him away, the "all" is away, the "whole" is missing: hence, the *group* does not exist!

THIS desire for the "allness" or "wholeness" of the group, which even today is poignantly real in all group experiences, was, among primitive groups, often a matter of life or death. "Are we all here?" was never a mere question of fact: it was a hope or fear; and "Now we are all here!" was a signal of relief from strain. The "All" is present when all are present; it is absent when but one is absent; and the group never has such confidence in itself as when it is sure that it has this "Allness" to depend upon.

Illustrations of the dependence of the primitive group upon this "allness" may be found everywhere. A not unfamiliar Biblical story from the twentieth chapter of First Samuel will serve. David had roused the anger of his patron, King Saul. He thought it best for all concerned that he should absent himself for a few days. He asked his friend, Jonathan, to make his excuses to the king. But Jonathan replied: "Tomorrow is the feast of the new moon; the king will expect all the household to be present: how shall I explain your absence?" David replied: "Tell the king that tomorrow is the annual reunion of our family in Bethlehem; it is imperative that all should be present: the king will understand!" Of course, the king did not accept the excuse; but that was not because he did not recognize its validity.

There can be no doubt of the fact that groups have, always and everywhere, experienced a tremendous increment of power and confidence with the realization of the "Allness" of their membership. What is the source of this increment of power, and what is its significance? Primitive groups do not go deeply into the analysis of such questions: they answer them, making such naive assumptions as fit in with their experience, and go on living. The answer seems obvious enough to the primitive mind: the strength of the Deity is here added to their strength; the presence of the Deity, invisible but plainly felt, gives them confidence and power. When "all are together with one accord in one place," the spirit comes upon them: they share in a power not their own; they are caught up by an energy longed for and yet feared; they hand on to their children the story of wonders which men unaided could never dream of performing!

IS not this, they ask, the very presence of God? Is not this invisible All, therefore, the most important "member" of the group? When he is with the group the group is invincible: in battle it cannot be defeated; on the chase it cannot fail. That he may remain with the group and continue to be its strength; or, at any rate, that the group may be assured of his return whenever his help is needed—this is the ardent hope of all other members. Should any member fail to do his part, the All withdraws and hides his face, and the whole group suffers—at least until it can overcome this defection and find a new "allness."

But when the group is complete and at one with itself at any time of feasting or of crisis, the All may confidently be expected. To ease the strain of expectancy, some orator may stir the emotions; the group may break into song; or yield to the inspiration to the dance. In the swell of the song, or in the swing of the dance, the All comes in upon them and pervades them with "supernatural" power: they are caught up into raptures of self-sacrifice; they are seized with frenzies of torture and immolation. Gladly will they die for the group, or perform any other act to prove their worthiness to belong to such a fellowship and to share in the strength of the All!

Death, at such a time, does not weaken the group or drive away the All: it but transfers some part of the group's strength from the visible to the invisible realm, and leaves the group as strong as it was before. Individuals may perish in this way from among living and visible men, and the membership of the visible group may change, will change, continuously. But the All does not change: including within itself the past, the present and the future, the visible and the invisible members, it is the same forever!

Practical men, measuring the world's energies in terms of "foot-pounds" may scoff at the idea of "invisible power," may argue that there is no such energy as this All of the primitive group. More intelligent men, such as Napoleon, may admit its existence but claim that it is always "on the side of the heaviest battalions." History confutes them. The theologian and the psychologist may have differing interpretations of the phenomenon but they unite with history and common sense in testifying that there is no power in the earth more real than the strength of a group, compact of its visible and invisible members, and acting under the inspiration of the All!

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Our Social Institutions
A Course for High Schools

VII. Schools and Education

For nearly a century Americans have been saying, "The public school is the hope of the country." Yet when the soldiers were being tested in 1917, it was found that nearly a third of them were "illiterate"; that is, they could not write a short letter to their home-folks, or read a paragraph in a newspaper and tell what it meant. These illiterates were found in all parts of the country and in all classes and groups. Since the war all intelligent Americans have been asking themselves and one another what all these facts mean: What are the real facts about our American schools and American intelligence?

1. The Extent of Human Knowledge

Consider the classification of books in your local school or public library. What system of classification is in use: the Dewey or the Library of Congress? If the former, what kinds of books are classified under the Zero group? Under the other groups, from One to Nine? If the Library of Congress classification is in use in your library, make out a complete list of the main groupings of books under this system. In either case, is each of these main groups represented by any considerable number of books in your library? Have you any interest in each of these main groups? Have you read something from each of these main divisions of human knowledge? Do you know how many books are to be found in our largest public libraries, such as the Library of Congress or the Public Library of New York City? How long has it taken humanity to build up this accumulation of books? Is the task of extending human knowledge completed? Is it still going on? Where? Who is responsible for it?

2. What Is Education?

Does going to school insure getting an education? How many years are required to make education certain? Can any one get an education without going to school? Did any one ever get an education that way? How did he get it? Can one get an education by reading books? How many books must he read? Can he read too many books? Can one learn anything without the use of books? Do people who have never read books know anything? Do they know anything worth knowing? How did they learn it? Does working have any value for education? What is there in education besides knowledge of facts? Does playing contribute anything to education? Does "getting an education" ever come to a definite end? Does graduation mean the end of education?

What has happened to a person by the time he is educated? How does he differ from an uneducated person? What share has the school had in making this difference? Is the educated person a more desirable citizen than the uneducated? Is he more interested in the welfare of the community? Can he be depended upon the stand for the common good? Does he vote? Does he take an interest in politics? Does he wear a white collar? Does he go to church? Does he work? Does he ever work with his hands? What are the types of work which an educated person should engage in? What is meant by a liberal education? A vocational education? Are both of these education? Has education anything to do with "getting ready for life"? With getting ready for work?

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James H. Tufts, The Real Business of Living. Henry Holt and Co.

Henry R. Burch and Samuel H. Patterson, American Social Problems. Macmillan Co.

The books mentioned on this page may be obtained through The Survey Book Department.

Questions on
Current Issues

Races and Ages

The mills of the gods grind slowly, but they grind exceeding fine: for the last six years they have been grinding out refined grists of statistics about the racial elements in our population. Each new grist denied almost all preceding ones. Statistics are fearfully and wonderfully made; the statistician is one of the noblest works of God. An indispensable element in his equipment for work is adequate training in "how to make statistics mean what you wanted when you started out to get them." Sumner argues, in his Folkways, that if slavery should ever again become economically desirable, we should have little difficulty about the ethics of the matter. We have had statistics to prove that the "Southeastern Europeans" were our least desirable immigrants; now, we can demonstrate that some of our "Nordics" are the least desirable, by and large. What is the innocent by-stander to do in such a time? Perhaps the best thing he can do is to go to Geneva and listen to the oratory!

1. Races

What is a "race"? Did the human "race" spring from a single origin, or from many origins? What are the latest pronouncements of science on this question? How many "races" exist in the world today? Have any "races" disappeared in the course of history? If the human "race" came from many origins, what was the number of those origins? If the human race came from a single origin, how have the varied "races" we know today been derived? If these various races came from a single origin, does that mean that whites and Negroes both came from the same ancestor? That members of the Ku Klux Klan and Jews, Catholics and Negroes all came from a single remote ancestor? If these various "races" did not all come from a single "race," how many original "races" have there been? How many of these original "races" still exist, today? Do all the various representatives of a single existent "race" love one another? If not, how can their attitudes be explained? If they hate one another, do they show more, or less, hate in this relationship than they each show toward some other "race" lying outside the bounds of their own descent? That is to say, is there any formula for racial hatred, or for racial respect, that is of universal application? Is there any formula for racial inferiorities and superiorities that holds without exception? Has any one, at the present time, a convincing, workable program for the guidance of our immigration officials or congress in the matter of admission? Under these circumstances is intolerance the most admirable and reasonable of attitudes?

2. Ages

Is there any reason why our social and political problems should not be solved immediately? Have we not plenty of proposed solutions? Is there anything except the obstinacy of men standing in the way of applying one or more of these solutions? How many solutions can one problem stand? Why must we have the oratory before we have the solution of our problems? Do people want problems solved? Do the problem-solvers ever interfere with the solution of problems? Does the problem-solver ever become part of the problem? Does solving problems require any special technique or ability? Is oratory an essential of this technique? Are words real things? Are ideas real things? Are facts real things? Which is the most real, words, ideas or facts? Of which do we have the largest supply, today?

References:

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

THE ORGANIZATION of councils of state-wide social agencies is growing apace. Although the plan for a state-wide council in Indiana was not approved by the state conference, Kansas and Colorado organized such councils this autumn. In Colorado, however, the council includes only state-wide health agencies. The Kansas council was inaugurated at the annual state conference of social work. Although small in attendance, this conference is practical and energetic. Kansas social workers have the grace and courage to be self-analytical. The state conference program included a thorough study of state institutions reported by Elmer Scott of Dallas, Texas, a case-work clinic conducted by Frank J. Bruno of Minneapolis, and a symposium, participated in by thirteen state and national agencies, on "Where Kansas Communities Can Turn for Help." One got the feeling from this conference that, under the leadership of Prof. Stuart A. Queen as the new president, Kansas is building soundly for a constructive social welfare program.

One of the largest and most thoroughgoing state conferences of social welfare was that of Ohio. Although the place of meeting was in a corner of the state, nearly nine hundred people registered. A new division of the conference, "Industrial and Economic Problems," brought out an interesting discussion of unemployment, not as an abstract problem but as one which the state must face soon again. The opinion expressed by some of the delegates was that an emergency relief organization organized hurriedly and without proper coordination with existing agencies, is not the solution; that a much more efficient method is to expand existing agencies to care for the increased load. With either method the trick is to gage in advance when the unemployment crisis is likely to come. It is at this point that a close contact between the social worker and the business man serves both groups. In Ohio the feeling is that another period of unemployment, not as violent as in 1920 but enough to warrant careful preparation, is due next spring, or at the latest next autumn.

MAYORS, aldermen, congressmen and governors are notoriously weak members on a state welfare conference program. But there are shining exceptions. One is State Senator O. C. Holmes, of Gary, Indiana, who was elected president of the Indiana State Conference for 1924. Another is Governor William E. Sweet of Colorado. Here is a governor who is personally concerned about the welfare program of his state, whose vision is broad and whose acts are constructive. He is also blessed with a private secretary who is a social worker. Governor Sweet is interested especially in penal institutions. A contract has been signed with the Redpath Lyceum Bureau providing that the same course of entertainments which is given the citizens of Canon City be given also to the inmates of the state penitentiary, situated at Canon City. The leading athletes at the penitentiary are paroled to a school of physical education where they may become proficient in physical training and education, to return to the penitentiary as group leaders. At the boys' reformatory each boy, as he is discharged, is placed under the guardianship of a businessmen's club of the community to which he is returned. The club is notified thirty days in advance of the boys' release, and the responsibility for the readjustment of the boy is undertaken by the members of the club.

THIS MATTER of community responsibility has been clearly demonstrated by Judge Charles W. Hoffman, retiring president of the Ohio Conference of Public Welfare and judge of Cincinnati's juvenile court. The difference is that Judge Hoffman, except in certain incurable cases, does believe in the state institution as a solution of delinquency. During the past year, from the entire county in which Cincinnati lies, Judge Hoffman has committed to state institutions only eight children. He not only believes, he also proves, that a community can handle its only delinquency problem if it will, and can do so more humanly and more efficiently than it can by passing the responsibility to the state.

WE have with us today a Compensatory Dream of a Secretary Travelling for a National Social Agency. If G. C. can make "remarks both sage and wise" as well as she can make rhymes, she is obviously a very superior field secretary. And if a very superior field secretary feels this way about her job, what hope is there for the rest of us?

Once in a moment frolicsome, I thought I'd like to travel some
I thought the life was bright and gay to trip about the land
Delivering, though advisory, remarks both sage and wise or
Reaching out to others a noble helping hand.
I thought the opportunity to tell with all impunity
Your plans both large and elegant to eager local ears
To meet all the committees of forty different cities
It seemed to be a thrilling way to spread one's best ideas.*
Of course the inspiration imparted to the nation
By this method was enormously beyond words to convey
And also one did get to see much of the nation's scenery
At least that's how it looked to me when I was young and gay.

Alas the dreams of youth of one, they hide the social truth from one
With a rosy glamorous haziness that's wonderful to see
But in seven years of travelling the hard facts keep one marvelling
How very different life is from the thing you think 'twill be.
Now as I go about the land, a heavy suitcase in each hand
There's a spot I find my mind goes drifting toward.
Though I won't desert the nation, I'll inspire from one location
And in that spot there'll be a house, a garden, and a Ford.

G. C.

* pronounced idears please

GEOGRAPHICALLY, Colorado and Kentucky have much in common. In each is a county untouched by a railroad, and to reach mountain communities it is frequently necessary to travel not only by railroad but also by narrow gauge, stage and mule-back. From Denver, it takes as long to reach a town in the northwestern section of the state, over the backbone of the Rockies, as it takes to go by pullman across the Colorado drylands, Kansas and Missouri, to the Mississippi. To a social worker who covers the state of Colorado, life is full of adventure. Just as Linda Neville has led "flying clinics" into the Kentucky hills, so four social agencies in Colorado have combined to send througout the state a traveling health clinic. As advance agent goes a member of the Extension Department of Colorado University. He is followed by other members of the clinic—a physician and a member each of the state board of health, the Colorado Child Welfare Bureau, and the state tuberculosis association. They travel for weeks at a stretch, reaching back into the isolated pockets in the hills. Once out of touch with the cities they are on their own; no specialists to consult with, no elaborate city agencies to which they can pass difficult cases, "no nuthin'"—just barehanded pioneer work.

PROFESSIONAL AND MATRIMONIAL teamwork is being demonstrated in Toledo, Ohio by Mr. and Mrs. Arthur Guild. Mr. Guild is secretary of the Social Service Federation. To him fall the practical decisions in Toledo's case-work. Mrs. Guild is instructor in social work in Toledo University. Twice a week, the social workers of Toledo meet in the rooms of the federation for a case clinic. The immediate local problem is presented by Mr. Guild and his staff. The theory is presented by Mrs. Guild. A discussion follows and the net result is a solution which works but also instructs, because it meets professional standards. The clinic is held from 8.00 A. M. to 9.00 A. M. As the office day starts at 8.30 A.M., this means that the social agencies contribute a half-hour of their workers' time, and the workers themselves contribute a half-hour.

DR. HELEN MOORE has resigned as director of the Child Hygiene Bureau of the Kansas Board of Health and will become associated with the American Child Health Association.

THE STATE bar association of Illinois is cooperating with the family case workers of the state by authorizing and encouraging its members to form volunteer legal aid committees. Of twenty local family case-work organizations, fourteen now have the cooperation of such legal aid committees.

J. D. K.

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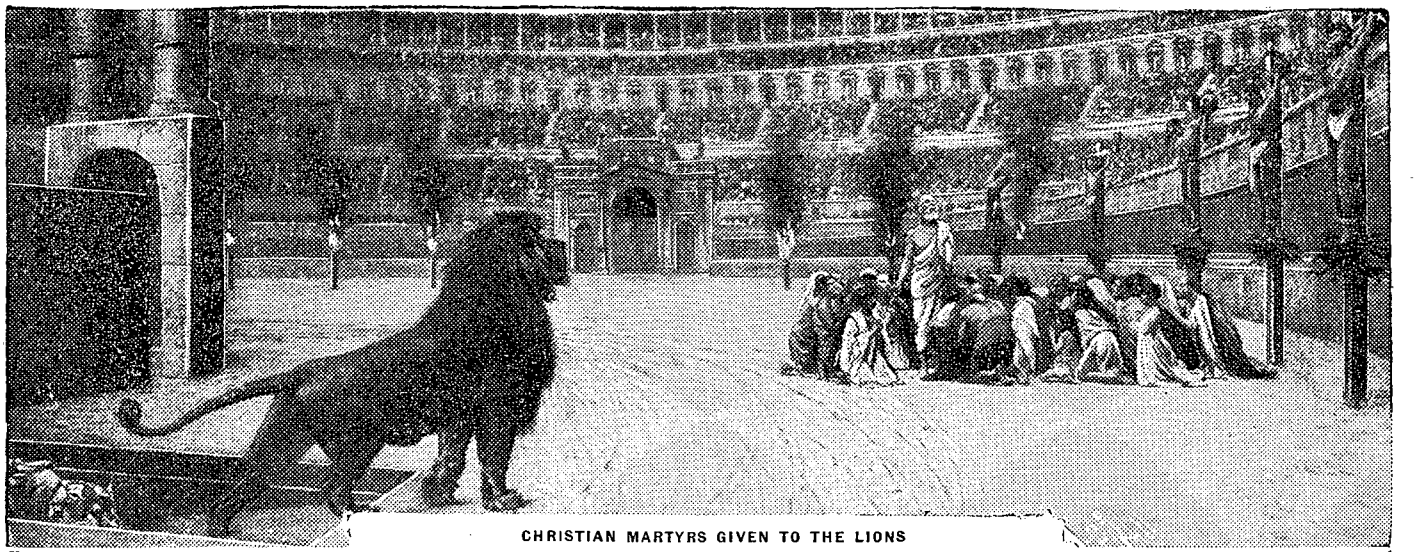

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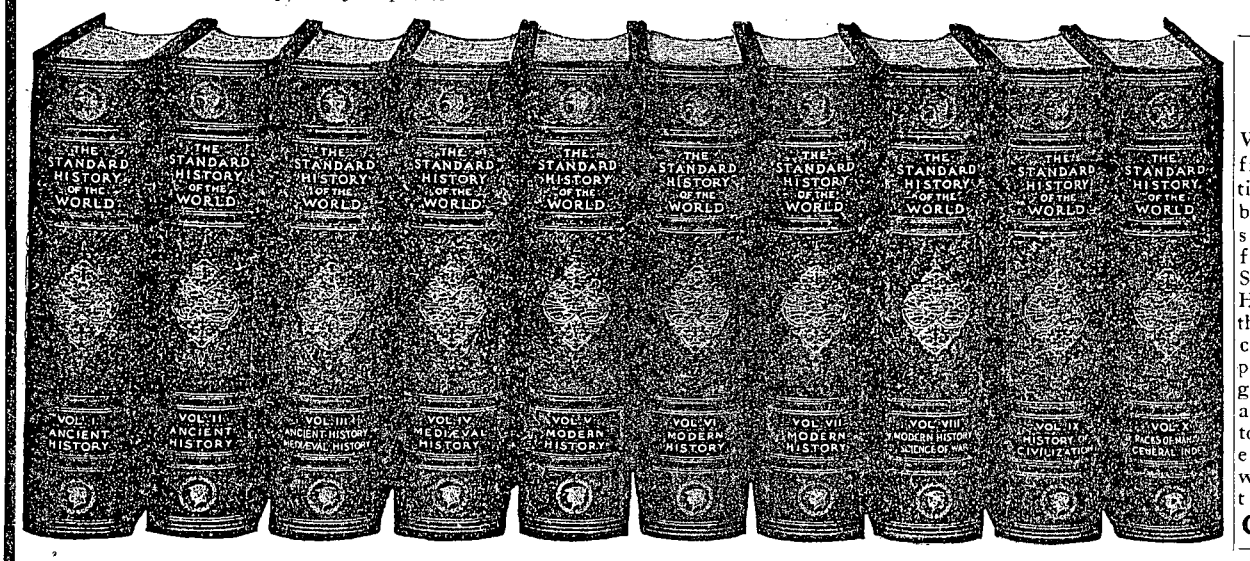
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AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (formerly American Child Hygiene Association and Child Health Organization of America)—Headquarters, 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Administrative Offices, 370 7th Ave., New York. Herbert Hoover, pres.; L. Emmett Holt, M.D.; Livingston Farrand, M.D.; Thomas D. Wood, M.D.; 1st, 2nd, 3rd vice-presidents, respectively; Corcoran Thom, treas.; Philip Van Ingen, M.D., sec'y. To promote health among children from conception to maturity—this to be accomplished through cooperation with parents, doctors, nurses, teachers, and other health workers; by dissemination of scientific information and teaching methods in schools, through conferences, addresses, pamphlets, publicity material, and a monthly magazine, "Mother and Child."

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AMERICAN PEACE SOCIETY—Founded 1828, labors for an international peace of justice. Its official organ is the Advocate of Peace, $2.00 a year. Arthur Deerin Call, secretary and editor, 612-614 Colorado Building, Washinpton, D. C.

AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION—Annual Congress of American penologists, criminologists, social workers in delinquency. Next Congress Boston, Massachusetts, September 13-19, 1923. E. R. Cass, general secretary, 135 East 15th Street, New York City.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Frank J. Osborne, exec. sec'y; 370 Seventh Ave. New York. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publication free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. To promote a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education; to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases: to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

THE CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C .C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22d Street, New York City. A League of children's agencies to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches and other groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

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Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Mrs. S. J. Rosensohn, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.

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HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro and Indian youth for community service. Advanced courses: agriculture, builders, business, home-economics, normal. Publishes "Southern Workman" and free material on Negro problems. J. E. Gregg, principal.

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JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LEGAL AID ORGANIZATIONS—Officers: President, Albert F. Bigelow, 111 Devonshire Street, Boston; Secretary, John S. Bradway, 133 South 12th St., Philadelphia; Chairman of Executive Committee, Leonard McGee, 239 Broadway, New York. This organization was formed in 1912 as a national association of all legal aid societies and bureaus in the United States to develop and extend legal aid work. Copies of Proceedings at convention in December 1922, including report on relation between social service and legal aid, may be had on request.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,152 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 174 American secretaries at work in 55 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe. The National Board also maintains a National Training School of graduate type at 135 East 52nd Street, New York City, for the professional training of its leadership. The training is given in two parts. The preliminary course consists of six weeks of lecture work (generally given in the summer session) and nine months practical experience on salary under supervision. The advanced course requires a full year of resident academic study, upon the successful completion of which a professional certificate is granted. Special emphasis is placed upon training in group work.

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National Catholic Service School for Women, 2400 Nineteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 1 East 104th Street, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10. $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.—Chas. F. Powlison, gen. sec'y; 70 Fifth Ave., New York. Originates and publishes exhibit material which visualizes the principles and conditions affecting the health, well being and education of children. Cooperates with educators, public health agencies, and all child welfare groups in community, city or state-wide service through exhibits, child welfare campaigns, etc.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE—Dr. Walter B. James, pres.; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, med. dir.; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, sec'y; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, nervous and mental disorders, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, criminology, psychiatric social service, backward children, surveys, state societies. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $2.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $ .25 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Grace Abbott, president, Washington, D. C.; W. H. Parker, secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-first annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Toronto, Canada, June 25th to July 2nd, 1924. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement —samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE—156 Fifth Avenue, New York. Mrs. Florence Kelley, gen'l sec'y. Promotes legislation for enlightened standards for women and minors in industry and for honest products; minimum wage commissions, eight hour day, no night work, federal regulation food and packing industries; "honest cloth" legislation. Publications available.

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NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

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NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION—Anna A. Gordon, president; Headquarters, 1730 Chicago Avenue, Evanston, Illinois. To secure effective enforcement of the Eighteenth Amendment, to advance the welfare of the American people through the departments of Child Welfare, Women in Industry, Social Morality, Scientific Temperance Instruction, Americanization and other allied fields of endeavor. Official publication "The Union Signal" published at Headquarters.

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Doctors by Devious Ways

(*Continued from page* 317)

nine examinations in his sophomore year at a reputable eastern institution, went west and returned two months later a registered physician. In another case a physician obtained a Connecticut license for $100 while he was in Colorado!

Connecticut started an abortive attempt at medical housecleaning last summer when an investigation by the state commissioner of health resulted in the invalidation and recall of 53 licenses granted by the Eclectic Board. Thereupon the state legislature passed a bill validating the licenses, which was vetoed by Governor Templeton. Probably a special session of the legislature will be called to revise the medical practice act, possibly with an eye on that of Minnesota, recommended by the forgers themselves, as too stringent.

Missouri likewise has been stirred by the disclosures and will survey the licenses of all of her 6,000 physicians. Governor McRae of Arkansas has given his approval to a movement initiated by the Pulaski County Medical Society for a similar survey of all licenses issued in that state in the past ten years. In New York City a study is under way of all hospital internes, since it has been charged that physicians who obtain their diplomas with little or no study sometimes adopt this inexpensive method of getting a little experience before they undertake a practice of their own. Only about a third of the physicians known to have been improperly licensed in Connecticut established a practice in that state, so it is to be assumed that several hundred may be at work in other parts of the country, aside from groups—whose numbers can only be guessed—who have passed the Eclectic Board in Arkansas, or the boards in Massachusetts, Wyoming and the District of Columbia, or have been able to buy or forge a degree elsewhere. Proper legislation can and should provide a safeguard in the first group of states. For the rest, only constant vigilance and fearless prosecution can offer a reliable check to the occasional infiltration into the most carefully guarded of professions of persons anxious to profit by this peculiarly noxious exploitation of human misery.

MARY ROSS

Mental Attitude and Social Progress

(*Continued from page* 308)

medicine a generation or so ago, when we explained a man's difficulties by saying he had the "misery." The washer-woman sent word that she could not come today because she had the "misery." For many years people were satisfied to say this, but then there came a time when someone wanted to know what the "misery" was. When we got to that point we began to make progress.

Isolating the problem is of course merely the first step in progress. What I want to make clear, is that this is the problem par excellence of the next fifty years, the problem of what lies back of the attitude of the individual; how these attitudinal walls are to be scaled, or better, broken and the energies of the individual set free to rational intelligent use. Millions have been spent on the investigation of wages, living conditions, hog-cholera and a hundred other matters. Now we must spend a few on man himself, to find out what indeed are his possibilities for growth, intelligent action, and social existence. The object of such study will not be to help men to live ten years longer, but to show how to make those ten years, or any ten years worth living. We have been so busy gathering facts on social conditions and the like, thinking if we had the truth—the facts—that people would be convinced and our problems would go over the top. But we find that this is not true, because before the facts lie attitudes—our attitude and the attitudes of others and the problems of what we and they think of the facts and why we and they think as we do. This is what I mean by speaking of mental attitude as a factor in social progress. The wall that keeps these facts from going through, though we hurl them with the force of dynamite, is an emotional attitude, probably necessary once for the protection of the personality of the individual. We must learn the genesis of these attitudes—then, when we have our collected facts on any given situation we will be able to have them understood, and the next fifty years will see even more progress than has this last.

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MATRON, Jewish, for small Orphan Institution in Bridgeport, Connecticut. Address, Mrs. Nudelman, 1222 Park Ave., Bridgeport, Conn.

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INDIANA SOCIETY FOR MENTAL HYGIENE: Claypool Hotel, Indianapolis, December 17. Secretary, Paul Kirby, 88 Baldwin Block, Indianapolis.

PENNSYLVANIA STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION: Philadelphia, December 26-28. Secretary, Dr. James H. Kelley, 10 S. Market St., Harrisburg.

ILLINOIS STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION: Springfield, December 26-28. Secretary, R. C. Moore, Carlinville.

INTERNATIONAL QUADRENNIAL STUDENT VOLUNTEER CONVENTION: Indianapolis, December 28-January 1. Secretary, Robert Wilder, 25 Madison Ave., New York.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION: Seventeenth Annual Meeting. New Willard Hotel, Washington, D. C., December 27-29. Secretary, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23rd St., New York.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY: Annual Meeting. Washington, D. C., December 27-29. Secretary, E. W. Burgess, University of Chicago, Chicago.

GRADUATE NURSES OF DELAWARE: Wilmington, January 9. Secretary, Amy E. Wood, 213 W. 7th St., Wilmington.

MARYLAND STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Osler Hall, Baltimore, January 10-11. Secretary, Sarah F. Martin, Maryland State Nurses Association, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore.

KENTUCKY STATE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Louisville, January 13-16. Secretary, Lucy W. Warren, Family Service Organization, 215 E. Walnut St., Louisville.

PENNSYLVANIA TUBERCULOSIS SOCIETY: Annual Meeting. Penn-Harris Hotel, Harrisburg, January 15-17. Executive Secretary, Arthur M. Dewees, 10 South 18th St., Philadelphia.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE MIDDLE WEST: Annual Convention. Hotel Chase. St. Louis, Missouri, January 16-19. Secretary, Leonard W. Wahlstrom, 1711 Estes Ave., Chicago, Illinois.

STATE NURSES ASSOCIATION: Providence, January 21. President, Amy Allison, Providence, Rhode Island.

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CURRENT PAMPHLETS

Listings fifty cents a line for four insertions, copy to remain unchanged.

THE COMMUNITY AND ITS LEISURE—How to Fill the Gap. Philip L. Seman, Jewish People's Institute, 1258 Taylor Street, Chicago, Illinois. Single copy $.50—113 pages.

TEN-CENT MEALS by Florence Nesbitt, 44 pp. (10 cents). HOW JOHN AND MARY LIVE and Save on $35 a Week—a weekly budget plan (10 cents); Weekly Allowance Book (10 cents). Am. School Home Economics, 849 East 58 St., Chicago.

CREDIT UNION. Complete free information on request to Roy F. Bergengren, 5 Park Square, Boston, Mass.

FINANCIAL FEDERATIONS, by William J. Norton, director of the Detroit Community Union. A reprint in handy pamphlet form of a series of articles published in recent Midmonthly issues of The Survey. Price 25 cents; 6 copies $1; 25 copies $3; postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y.

WELFARE FEDERATIONS, by Edward T. Devine, contributing editor of The Survey. A reprint of four articles from The Survey. Price 50 cents; 3 copies $1; 25 copies $6, postpaid. The Survey, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N. Y.

THE UNPRINTABLE TEXT BOOK. A handy pamphlet reprint of an article by Prof. Joseph K. Hart, Editor of The Survey's Education Department. Free to teachers on request. To others, 10 cents. The Survey, 112 East 19th St., New York, N. Y.

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"Undesirable Aliens"

(*Continued from page* 312)

(including that for total defectives), and one "third." Great Britain has one "first" and two "seconds"; Scandinavia and Italy have each one "second" and one "third." Unplaced are Austria-Hungary and Germany. The lowest score for total defectives falls to Austria-Hungary (92 per cent)—the only large region that yields less than its allowance. At some distance follows Germany (107) and Great Britain (113).

This showing hardly confirms the impression that Europe falls into two contrasted regions, one desirable, the other undesirable—the north and west on the one hand, the south and east on the other. The country with the worst record falls in the north and west division; that with the best record in the south and east. To the north and west division fall in the competitive scoring for high proportions of defectives, four first places, three "seconds" and two "thirds"; to the south and east division three "firsts," three "seconds" and five "thirds." Comparing the north and west division as a whole with the south and east as a whole, the former has the better record as to crime, feeblemindedness, epilepsy and tuberculosis, the latter as to insanity and dependency. For total defectives, the north and west has a small but distinct advantage, a fulfilment of 130 per cent, as against 143 for the south and east.

If we are required to draw conclusions respecting these main sources of immigrants, it is clear that these data present immigration as least desirable from Ireland, the Balkans and Russia, in that order; most desirable from Austria-Hungary (including the present Czecho-Slovakia and parts of Jugoslavia and Poland), Germany, and Great Britain, in that order.

Laughlin's figures for the smaller subdivisions of Europe, and for non-European countries, are of great interest; only certain points can be mentioned as to the proportions of all classes of defectives together. In Austria-Hungary, Austria (which included Czecho-Slovakia) with a quota fulfilment of 82 per cent, has a better record than Hungary (115 per cent). Still smaller proportions of defectives than Austria are given by Switzerland (54), Japan (58), Wales (61). Greece (191 per cent for all defectives together) yields a worse record than the Balkans as a whole in all classes except feeblemindedness and epilepsy. Larger proportions of defectives than Ireland (209 per cent) are yielded by Australia (1,000), Serbia (600), Spain (400), India (400) Bulgaria (227) and Mexico (210); but in most of these cases the numbers involved are so small as to make the figures unreliable.

What may be concluded as to the groups that are responsible for the large proportion of apparently heritable defects appearing in the native-born offspring of immigrants (as seen in the last two columns of our first table)? Laughlin draws no explicit conclusion, but from the average ages of defectives of that group he shows that their parents arrived in the years 1880 to 1900 or earlier; also that the prevailing immigrant nations at that period were Germany and Ireland. All the lines of evidence presented thus converge upon Ireland as the chief source of defectives.

The general upshot is of a character to discourage attempts to regulate immigration on the basis of race and nationality, so far as Europeans are concerned. He would be a hardy politician who framed a law designed to discriminate against Ireland and Greece. Possibly this result is fortunate. But what should be done? At one extreme it is held, as Mr. Zangwill recently put it, that nationality is the ill with which the world is afflicted; the only remedy is to break down all barriers. A defective individual harms the world equally wherever he is; he should be allowed to go where he is best off. The nationalistic view, on the other hand, is that the United States can consider only its own welfare. To this end, Laughlin recommends not racial discrimination, but a more careful examination of the prospective immigrant in the country of origin, taking into consideration his inheritance, as indicated by the defectiveness or otherwise, of the family to which he belongs. The unit of admittance would be the family rather than the individual. If the nationalistic view is to prevail, this appears to be the only practicable method—if indeed this method itself is practicable!

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PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

PREDICTED GROWTH OF POPULATION OF NEW YORK AND ITS ENVIRONS. By Raymond Pearl and Lowell J. Reed. Committee on Plan of New York and Its Environs, 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York City. Price 25 cents.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR WOMEN IN THE TELEPHONE SERVICE. Prepared for the Indianapolis Vocational Information Service. Indianapolis Chamber of Commerce and Indiana University. Indiana University Book Store, Bloomington. Price 10 cents.

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